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A GRAMMAR OF
THE GERMAN LANGUAGE

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A GRAMMAR OF THE GERMAN LANGUAGE

DESIGNED FOR A THOROUGH AND PRACTICAL
STUDY OF THE LANGUAGE AS SPOKEN
AND WRITTEN TO-DAY

BY

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„Die Sprache ist kein fertiges, ruhendes Ding, sondern etwas in jedem Augenblicke Verdenkes, Entstehendes und Vergehendes.“ (Humboldt.)

„Dieser Mensch redet wie ein Buch,“ ist ein krankes Lob. Umgekehrt sei die Lösung: „Dies Buch redet wie ein Mensch.“ (Otto Schroeder.)

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HERMANN COLLITZ AND GEORG EDWARD

WITH GRATITUDE AND REGARD



PREFACE

THIS book is intended to furnish to students of the German language and literature an outline of German grammar, based not upon some ideal conception of how the language should be spoken, but upon the actual varying usage of the intelligent classes in the German Empire, Austria, and Switzerland. An earnest attempt has been made to make the work a valuable book of reference, so that the general student might find in it an impartial and rather full presentation of the facts of the language founded upon the works of scholars and also an independent study of the polite and colloquial literature itself. In order to attain to the greatest possible completeness in the given space, it was thought best, not to present the materials gathered in the course of the work on the subject, but only to give precise statements of results illustrated in most cases by a few apt examples. In this way a great many more points have been treated than in large scholarly works where the prominent aim is to present the materials gathered in long researches. The plan to make the book as complete as possible has been materially furthered by the slow development of the work throughout a period of over fifteen years. From year to year new points presented themselves and old ones appeared in fuller outline, so that continued search and occasional accidental finds have added much to the original draft of the work.

The full index will place the contents of the book at the disposal of the student.

This treatise often differs considerably from German works in subject matter and manner of presentation, as it is written entirely from the standpoint of the needs of English-speaking students. Hence considerable space is often devoted to points scarcely mentioned by German scholars, or not treated at all.

Throughout the book much attention has been paid to classification in order that the individual life of the grammatical categories might be carefully studied. It is hoped that the results of this course will prove to have not only a scientific but also a practical value. Thus, for instance, in order that both of these aims might be attained, the inflection of nouns is presented in the minutest detail. Here it is hoped that full treatment will lead to clearness. This part of German grammar is so inconsistent and confused that only a full picture can give an adequate idea of the inflection as it actually is. However clear the inflectional groups may appear to one versed in historical grammar who is familiar with the various causes that have produced the present forms, to the general student these groups are not entirely clear unless the list of words composing each group is complete, as there is often no formal sign by which one may be guided in assigning a

word to its proper group. Here, indeed, the German himself constantly blunders, how then can a foreigner without the fullest light expect to see clearly? The confusion is often increased and natural tendencies arrested by learned men, who, looking at the questions from different stand-points, suggest different forms as the correct usage. Also the best authors of our time reflect in their works the general uncertainty with regard to form. Of course, final decisions cannot be given in such cases, and it only remains to record the fluctuations of usage. The dire confusion at this point will ultimately lead to considerable changes in the language itself, and indeed certain tendencies toward uniformity and simplicity are apparent. In treating this difficult subject the words of foreign origin have been included. The unscientific method of excluding such words, so generally followed by German scholars, has led to false impressions as to the real size and importance of the existing classes of German nouns.

Although this book is designed as a study of the German of to-day, it was found necessary, in order to give a faithful picture of the living language in all its varied styles, to include to a certain extent a study of the earlier forms of the language. It is difficult to state the precise date when a certain form or expression can fairly be said to be dead. Colloquial language often preserves earlier forms that have elsewhere passed away. The master-pieces of earlier parts of the present period are still heard everywhere in the theaters, and otherwise still occupy the thought of the present generation, and thus still influence the language of poetry and higher diction in general. The language of Luther is still heard in the churches and has stamped itself upon the language of certain classes of people and styles of speech. Beautiful gems of thought in the form of proverbs have been handed down from earlier times like precious heir-looms unchanged. Literature now abounds in description of the language and customs of people in the out-of-the-way provinces, who speak quaint dialects which often faithfully preserve grammatical forms now no longer in general use. In the historical novel and drama we find a conscious or unconscious imitation of the peculiar language of older parts of the period. Among the earliest forms of the present period treated here the examples taken from Luther's translation of the Bible are especially frequent. Also as this translation is fairly available to all, many references to interesting constructions in it have been made by merely quoting chapter and verse after a short remark explaining the construction. The edition here used is that of 1545, the last published by Luther himself. The available editions which will probably be used by students are all largely modernized, but even from these imperfect texts general impressions can be obtained. The language of the N. H. G. period has been uniformly conformed in spelling to the new official orthography, as far as it could faithfully reproduce the original form of the words, with the exception of passages taken from Luther's translation of the Bible. These are given with Luther's spellings, capitalizations, and punctuation in the hope that they might prove interesting and instructive. Of course only the most general points in this important part of the period are touched upon. A word from a period earlier than N. H. G. is never introduced for

its own sake, or to give a picture of an older state of things, but always solely for the purpose of throwing light upon some dark construction in present usage or the literature that is still generally studied. Thus there is not the slightest attempt to give a connected outline of earlier periods. However, in thus introducing glimpses of earlier forms of speech, a good deal is gained toward teaching the student to look at language in the true light, and he may thus in an easy and forcible way learn that grammar is not made up of the infallible decrees of book-makers, but that it is a growth, and has reached its present form by various evolutions, here piously preserving fossilized remnants of by-gone ages, there struggling toward uniformity out of a tangle of prehistoric conditions no longer understood, now enriched by the genius of the individual, and now by the rich quota of the different dialects, now working constructively along plain and simple lines not hitherto known.

Although attention has thus been carefully directed to early N.H.G. and also to the language of the classical period and the conspicuous authors of the first half of the 19th century, the main stress lies in the direction of present usage. Seven hundred works of varied styles published since 1850 by authors from various parts of the German Empire, Austria, and Switzerland, have been carefully read. Representative newspapers from different parts of these same countries have been studied. In this work, however, the political lines that have been drawn across the map of Germany, dividing it up into Austria, Switzerland, etc., have in all points of a general nature been disregarded, and terms *North*, *South*, etc., have been used as designations of the different parts of *one* country—one at least in language. In little points, usage differs considerably, not only in different parts of this territory, but also in the same section, and the author has not been able to share the assurance of certain grammarians who are so positive that they have prescribed the correct forms. The plain fact is that there is considerable fluctuation in present usage, though not so much as earlier in the period, and this fluctuation is found even in the highest forms of current literature. Everywhere throughout these pages will be found double and triple forms for the same thing, that is a picture of the language as it is. A table of many fluctuating forms has been kept by the author constantly before him, and data inserted from time to time. In some cases the prevailing form has become apparent, and has been recorded. In other cases the situation will not become clear until many minute investigations have been made by many scholars. In still other cases nothing can be fixed, as the language itself has not assumed definitive form. To prescribe forms at this point, as many German grammarians do, is quite pernicious, for the capricious decisions of different scholars, differing widely as they often do, add to the general confusion and arrest natural linguistic tendencies. However, between forms that fluctuated in Lessing's day a final decision has often been made, or both forms have been retained with different shades of meaning.

The usage of the best authors of our time has been taken in all cases as the highest authority. By this, however, poets and philosophers are

not alone meant. The best authors in the different fields of literature, even the much maligned newspapers, have been taken as guides. The pessimistic views of certain scholars with regard to the language of the daily press are not supported by the facts. The German newspaper man fills his place worthily and furnishes additional evidence of the power and flexibility of the German language. Indeed, his influence is especially needed in these days of intense realism, when polite literature often abandons the literary language entirely, or intersperses into it copious samples of dialect from every part of two empires and the Swiss republic. It is, however, far from our intention to criticize these naturalistic tendencies in literature which are so truly characteristic of our time, for we are not indifferent to a movement which in such a marked manner has widened human sympathies and increased the interest in polite literature in general. This broadening of the sphere of literature has increased the burdens of the grammarian, and made it seem to the author of the present work quite necessary that at least the salient features of popular language should be treated. Still greater attention has been paid to colloquial speech, and this study has been made more easy by the extensive literature of the naturalistic school, which has consciously striven to reproduce the language of actual life. Indeed, an earnest attempt has been made to treat the different styles of speech and to define as carefully as possible their proper boundaries. Although, in general, matters pertaining to style belong to rhetoric, a large number of the points in question belong strictly to grammar. Just as each locality has its particular dialect, so has each style its own individual grammatical forms. One style requires a genitive, another the accusative, one style a strong verb, another a weak one, &c. The conservative literary language clings to old grammatical forms, while colloquial speech prefers newer, more regular ones. Foreigners are particularly liable to stumble here and the native German grammarian in his quite uniform recommendation of the older more dignified inflection may lead English-speaking students astray. The conservative German grammarian may be pardoned for his zeal in defending the decaying forms of the language. To the foreigner, however, who is not able, as is a native, to discover the misguided enthusiasm of the grammarian, many of these lauded forms are very misleading, as they represent the language of the past, or of poetry, or elevated discourse. Even the great learned works of the best German scholars give the student only too often erroneous ideas of the present state of the language, so great is their zeal in unfolding the usage of earlier periods and so strong their apathy towards the questions of to-day. These decaying forms are throughout this work always treated as such and not recommended as models of present usage. To every people and every generation language is bequeathed, not as an article of antiquarian interest that must remain untouched and be carefully kept unchanged, but as the most useful and plastic of things, that which is connected with all that is interesting in life and which can be readily adapted to the new and changing needs of the generation. Also with regard to new forms and constructions, the usage of the best authors has been taken as authority rather than the dictum of conservative gram-

marians. A rich and plastic language like the German is capable of great and varied development if it remains the language of the nation and is not degraded to the position of the language of a few narrow-minded theorists. In the nation lie ever concealed countless hidden forces that are unceasingly at work on the strengthening, upbuilding, and beautifying of the language. In its present interesting period of linguistic growth, may the German language remain unchecked and free! However, for the sake of those who still believe in the dictatorial powers of the grammarian, in every instance there is a note after such new forms indicating that they are not approved by certain grammarians.

The conclusions with regard to the pronunciation are the result of the author's personal observations in different parts of Germany along with a study of the rich literature upon this subject. The signs of the time seem to point so decidedly to the Berlin pronunciation that it seems folly not to recognize it as the most representative form of the spoken language. The author, however, has not in other respects slighted the South, as can be seen in the book itself. The beautiful style of certain Swiss and Austrian authors was a great enticement to prolong unduly work in this direction.

The illustrative sentences used in this book are in most part taken directly from the literature of the language. In a number of cases where the cited sentence is long or intricate, parts not necessary to the thought of the sentence have been omitted. Thus sentences sometimes appear as complete which in the original are only parts of sentences. It is hoped, however, that this liberty will be pardoned on pedagogical grounds and for economic reasons, especially as otherwise not the slightest liberties have been taken with the authors' language, and great care has been employed to follow closely the text of the authorized prints, and wherever possible the latest editions, in order to avoid the danger of typographical errors or careless proof-reading. In a number of cases the examples have been taken from well-known grammatical and lexical sources, as the originals were not accessible. In a number of very common idioms no illustrative sentences could be found in the dictionaries, and in these cases they have been taken directly from the spoken language. It was not thought necessary to cite always the author in case of common usage, though in many interesting sentences this is done. The authors' names are, however, given where the usage in question is disputed. In such cases only one or two sentences are usually quoted, as it was impossible in the given space to enter into elaborate discussion. The conclusions, however, rest usually upon an ample collection of facts. In other cases the facts were not entirely convincing, but seemed to offer the proposed solution. In a number of instances where general misconceptions prevail a fuller presentation of the facts was made, contrary to the general plan of the work. In a number of instances also three representative authors are cited, one from the early part, one from the middle, and one from the present part of the period, in order to show that the usage has not fluctuated throughout the period. This occurs especially where some particular usage is represented in grammars and dictionaries as obsolete, dialectic, or as belonging to some particular part of the period

where the facts of the language clearly show that the word has been in general and continual use. Also in a number of cases several authors from widely different parts of the country have been cited, in order to show that the form is not provincial as stated by certain scholars. Where usage is limited to a particular style, section of the country, or a part of the period, a short statement of the facts is always made and a representative author cited. In certain parts of the book, however, as in the treatment of the noun, the strong verb, and portions of the syntax, no authors could be cited, although these portions rest upon a collection of facts as extensive as the others. These materials can only be used in a dictionary.

The great majority of quotations have been taken from common prose. The usual practice among grammarians of quoting so much poetry seems unsound in a book of this kind, especially as the unusual and exceptional forms here found may by the inexperienced student be taken for common forms of speech. The author recalls the smiles of his German friends of years ago who could not restrain the irresistible impulse to twitch the muscles of the face at the familiar-unfamiliar sound of his 'classic' language in a modern conversation. Their Goethe and Schiller seemed inexpressibly odd in the new environment. The object of a grammar should not only be to show the power of the language to express man's highest thoughts and deepest feelings, but also to show its manner of giving expression to the needs of human life in its varied aspects.

At the close of his labors the author confesses that the ideal which appeared to him in his first youthful conception of the work—that of giving a faithful picture of the language as it is written and spoken to-day—has not been completely realized. The linguistic phenomena presented by the language of a great people are too complex to be fully comprehended and faithfully described by one individual. However, the author has allowed the original title to stand upon his work, as it represents an ideal toward which he has constantly striven.

Although the aim throughout was to build up this work out of the actual facts of the language as gathered in the free and independent study of its polite and colloquial literature, nevertheless much of that which is good in it is due directly to the labors of many scholars who have thrown light upon the different phases of the study, such as Grimm, Vernaleken, Andresen, Heyne, Sanders, Paul, Wilmanns, Matthias, Wunderlich, Behaghel, Sütterlin, Minor, Viator, Engelen, Blatz, Heintze, Hempl, Valentine, and others. The school-grammars of Lyon, Weisse, Brandt, Thomas, Bierwirth, Eve, Aue, Beresford-Webb, Fasnacht, also the notes of Mr. Wolstenholme in his annotated school-texts, have furnished valuable assistance. The author feels himself especially indebted to the following scholars who have read all of the manuscript or parts of it, and by encouragement or fruitful criticism have contributed much toward making the book what it is: Professor Hermann Collitz, of Bryn Mawr; Professor H. C. G. von Jagemann, of Harvard; Professor Gustav F. Gruener, of Yale; Professor George Hempl, of the University of Michigan; Professor C. H. Grandgent, of Harvard; Professor Camillo von Klenze, of the University of Chicago;

Professor James T. Hatfield, of Northwestern University; Professors Ernst Voss and Edwin Roedder, of the University of Wisconsin; and Dr. Francis Wood, of the University of Chicago. The author finds it very difficult to define the full amount of his indebtedness to his colleague Mr. Georg Edward. For years Mr. Edward has by his accurate knowledge of his native language and literature assisted the author at critical points and kept him away from gross blundering. The author feels the same deep gratitude toward Professor Collitz, who gave encouragement and support at a time of great discouragement, when it appeared that the work could never be carried to a successful close.

In conclusion, the author recalls the helpful services of Mr. William Klingebiehl, of Clutier, Iowa, in the earlier draft of the grammar, also the kindness of the authorities of the Public Library of Chicago and the Public Library of Cincinnati, and last but not least the valuable aid rendered by the following scholars in the reading of the proofs: his colleagues Professor James T. Hatfield, Dr. Marcus Simpson, and Mr. Georg Edward; Professor Starr Willard Cutting and Dr. Francis Wood, of the University of Chicago; Professor William Wirtz, of Parsons College (Fairfield, Iowa); Dr. Fred. C. Hicks, of Monmouth College; Professor Charles R. Keyes, of Cornell College (Mt. Vernon, Iowa); Professor Elfrieda Hochbaum, of Wells College; the following students in Northwestern University: Mr. Walter E. Roloff, Mr. Friedrich Ruff, and Miss Hedwig H. Hochbaum. A number of their remarks upon the proofs have been embodied in the Grammar. The careful work of the Oxford University Press has rendered comparatively easy the efforts to present a faithful text.

EVANSTON, ILLINOIS,

April, 1904.



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INTRODUCTION

THE GERMAN LANGUAGE.

THE Germanic family of languages is descended from the same original language with the Indian (i.e. Sanskrit), Persian, Slavonic, Celtic, Greek, and Latin, from the last of which have come modern Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese. The Germanic languages are themselves divided into three groups. Of the first group, the East Germanic, only Gothic, now extinct, is well known to us. The second group, the North Germanic, includes modern Danish-Norwegian, Swedish, and Icelandic. The third group, the West Germanic, embraces High German and Low German, to the latter of which belong English, Dutch (the literary language of Holland and a large part of Belgium), and Low German in the narrow sense, i.e. the dialect of North Germany. Of these Germanic languages Gothic has the oldest literary documents, reaching back into the fourth century A.D., and thus, by reason of its age and highly developed grammatical structure, is much studied by all who desire to obtain an idea of the oldest Germanic language known to us. High German, usually for the sake of brevity called German, is the language of the German Empire, a large part of Switzerland, and parts of the Austrian Empire. It is characterized among the Germanic languages by its richness in grammatical forms. However, in earlier periods these forms were still richer. Upon the basis of its grammatical forms German is divided into the following three periods.

1. O(ld) H(igh) G(erman) is the period from the sixth century till about 1100. In this period Latin was the language usually used in official documents and all literary and scientific productions, and hence comparatively little in the way of literature proper is found in the German of this period. From the early part of this period, only a few individual words and a few meager fragments are preserved. Further on, poems and connected discourses appear. The center of the literary life of this period is in the South.

O.H.G. was distinguished by rich, full vowels in its inflectional endings, such as *a, o, u*: (pl. of tag *day*) N. taga, G. tago, D. tagum, A. taga.

2. M(iddle) H(igh) G(erman) is the period from 1100-1350. In this period Latin still prevails as the leading literary language, but there is also a rich literature in German, which is much used, especially in poetry. Between 1180 and 1250 this literature culminated in the first classical period of German poetry. German was used also to some extent in prose, especially in writings of a religious character. Since 1238 official documents occasionally appear in German, which later gradually led to its use as the official language of the empire. The center of literary life is still in the South, but the middle part of the empire also begins to play an important rôle.

M.H.G. is distinguished by the decay of the full, rich vowels *a, o, u* in the inflectional endings to the monotonous *e*: (pl. of tag *day*) N. tage (O.H.G. taga), G. tage (O.H.G. tago), D. tagen (O.H.G. tagum), A. tage (O.H.G. taga).

3. N(ew) H(igh) G(erman) is the period from 1350 to the present time. In general the period of N.H.G. may, from the standpoint of language, be divided into three parts. The first part, from 1350-1750, which may be called *early N.H.G.*, is a period of considerable change and growth. The second part, from 1750-1810, may be called the *classical period*, by reason

of the classical beauty and strength of the works of the great masters Lessing, Goethe, and Schiller, and in less measure of other writers of this time. Language questions had already in the latter part of the early N.H.G. period been earnestly discussed, and greater uniformity of usage had gradually been coming about. The great literary monuments of the classical period established in large measure a firm standard of speech. The third part, from 1810 to the present, which may be called *late N.H.G.*, has no marked peculiarity, but shows everywhere a tendency to level away little inequalities, and bring about greater simplicity and uniformity. The language is, however, still far from having a *complete* standard of usage either in grammar or pronunciation.

The center of literary life shifts within the course of the early N.H.G. period towards the middle of Germany, and one man, Martin Luther, plays a very important rôle in the development of the language. Latin is still much used, but the stirring questions of the Reformation brought the mother-tongue into prominent use, and gradually Latin retired to the rear. The year 1691 was the last one in which more Latin books appeared than German. Luther's bold stand for German has had far-reaching effects. His translation of the Bible into German was his most valuable contribution in this direction. This great and successful task, however, was not an easy one. Latin had so long been the medium of communication in the higher forms of literature that the native language was left largely to the common people. Thus under this neglect it fell more and more into dialects. The books that were published in German before Luther's time bore strong dialectic traces. The only common language in Germany was the official language of the government. The native language, though neglected by the best thinkers, had now long been used and developed by tradesmen, jurists, and government officials. This official language was quite generally used by those who wrote in German for a general public, but it was strongly modified everywhere under local influences. The confusion was increased by the fact that the people of North Germany spoke a form of Low German, a quite different language indeed. Luther desired to be generally understood, and wrote in the official language. He employed that particular form of it used in Saxony, which differed from that of the imperial chancery in having a Middle German coloring. This language was also modified by Luther's own dialect, another form of Middle German speech, and was probably also influenced by the Low German which he heard in his daily intercourse with the people of Wittenberg. Thus the language in which Luther wrote was largely Middle German, and was accordingly without the extremes of either the South or the North, and had something in common with both, although it was much nearer that of the South. Luther's translation was in general well received, and became with respect to its language the basis of modern German. As it was essentially the language of Protestantism it helped to extend the use of High German into the northern Low German countries, which were Protestant, and for the same reason was opposed in the Catholic South. This form of German, although in large part a South German language, met in some sections of the South, especially in Switzerland, strong resistance on account of its great divergence from the native dialect. But on account of the evident necessity of a literary standard, and the leadership of Middle Germany in the mental and literary life of the nation, Luther's language gradually spread over all parts of the country. The Low German (Plattdeutsch) of our own time is a mere dialect or a group of dialects, and though used by several talented authors in their best works, it has in general relinquished to High German the pulpit, school, and press. Low German writers, however, who at present occupy a commanding place in literature, are fond of interspersing into the literary language words of Low German origin with High German inflection, or rather they allow their characters to do this in accordance with actual usage in everyday life.

In a part of the N.H.G. period, especially in the eighteenth century, High German was threatened by French, which was much used at the different princely courts and by the upper classes of people in general. The phenomenal achievements, however, of Goethe in literature, of German scholars in science, and of German soldiers upon the battlefields of the nineteenth century, have at last given to all that is German a good name. There is at present a lively interest manifested by Germans in the process of the purification of their native language from foreign words which remind them of their former dependence. This movement is not merely a superficial one of pride, but a general and deep joy in the development of the mother-tongue in its purity and strength. The naturalistic school of literature has also introduced into literary speech the fresh tones of life, of which it stood in such great need. The Germans of Austria and Switzerland are taking part in these movements, and are contributing their full share.

N.H.G. is in general distinguished from M.H.G. by the following changes. (1) The most far-reaching change was the lengthening of all short vowels in open syllables: M.H.G. *dīser*, N.H.G. *biefer*. This development is discussed in the grammar in 4. 1. *b. Note*; 4. 2. *B. b. Note* (1); 198. *Historical Note*; 199. *Historical Note*. (2) The change of the long M.H.G. vowels *ī*, *ū*, *iu* (pro. *iu*) into the diphthongs *ei*, *au*, *eu*: M.H.G. *zit*, *hūs*, *hiute* have become N.H.G. *Zeit*, *Haus*, *heute*. (3) The change of the M.H.G. diphthongs *ie*, *uo*, *üe* into the long vowels *ie* (= *i*), *ü*, *ü*: M.H.G. *diep*, *huof*, *griene* have become *Dieb*, *Huf*, *grün*. The old diphthongs *ie*, *uo*, *üe* are still preserved in S.G. dialect, usually in altered forms: *ie*, *ue*, *üe* (or *ie*). The Bavarian dialect sometimes has *a* as a final element in these diphthongs: *ia*, *ua*, *üa* (or *ia*). These dialect forms occur of course in popular songs: *Behüt* (for *behüt*) *bich* *Gott!* *es wär' zu schön gewesen* (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, *Lieder* *jung* *Werners*, XII). (4) M.H.G. *ou* has become *au*: M.H.G. *boum*, N.H.G. *Baum*. (5) M.H.G. *e* and *i* have become rounded in a number of cases: (*a*) *e* sometimes becomes *ö* in the neighbourhood of *sch* or *l*: *schöpfen* (M.H.G. *schepfen*), *hülle* (M.H.G. *helle*). In a few cases also elsewhere: *erzögen* (M.H.G. *ergetzen*). (*b*) *i* sometimes becomes *ü*, especially after *w*: *Wurde* (M.H.G. *wirde*). Earlier in the period, forms with *e* and *i* are still found. In dialect the opposite feature is found, i.e. the unrounding of *ö* and *ü*; see 12. 1. *a* and 8. 1. *a*. (6) M.H.G. *u* and *ü* have in most cases become N.H.G. *o* and *ö* before *n* or *nn*, and in a number of instances before *m* or *mm*: *Sohn* (M.H.G. *sun*), *Sonne* (M.H.G. *sunne*), *gespinnen* (M.H.G. *gespunnen*), *König* (M.H.G. *künek*); *Sommer* (M.H.G. *sumer*), *geschwommen* (M.H.G. *geswummen*). (7) *S* in the beginning of a word before *l*, *m*, *n*, and *w*, and sometimes medially after *r*, has become *sch*: M.H.G. *släf*, *smërze*, *snël*, *swërt*, *hërsen*, have become N.H.G. *Schlaf*, *Schmerz*, *schnell*, *Schwert*, *herrschen*. See also 40. 2. *g*.

Since Luther's day many more or less important changes have appeared in the literary language and orthography, as the language has been constantly growing and developing, and stricter and more scientific principles now obtain. Only a few of the points where Luther's language and orthography differ from present usage are here given, as they are treated more fully in the Grammar: (1) The difference of vowel which existed between the singular and plural of strong verbs has been levelled away and now only one vowel is found throughout singular and plural. Thus *ich fand*, *wir funden* of Luther's day have become *ich fand*, *wir fanden*. (2) Remutation (see 208. 1. *a*) has disappeared in a few verbs, the vowel of the infinitive now standing in all the forms of the verb. Thus Luther's *ich sege*, past *ich sagte*, have become *ich sehe*, *ich setzte*. (3) Unaccented *e* has dropped out in a multitude of words. Luther's *hëreten*, *serget*, have become *hërten*, *sergt*. On the other hand Luther drops *final e* very freely, where it must now stand: *der erst(e)*, *das(e)big(e)*, &c. (4) A number of minor changes have taken place. Initial *u* is now always written *u*, not *v* as formerly: *vnd*, now *und*. We now write uniformly *au* and *eu* where Luther often has *aw* and *ew*: *bawm*, *traw*; now *Baum*, *treu*.

We now write *ä* where Luther has *e*: *hēnde* now *Hānte*. The doubling of consonants, which is so frequent in Luther's writings, is now limited to the one case that double consonants are used to show shortness of vowel. This difference can be noticed by comparing, in the present revised editions of the Bible, Mark iv. 26-27 with the following from the edition of 1545: *Vnd er sprach | Das reich Gottes hat sich also | als wenn ein Mensch samen auff's land wirfft | vnd schlefft | vnd stehet auf | nacht vnd tag | Vnd der Same gehet auff vnd wechset | das er nicht weis*. It will also be noticed in the preceding passage that capitals were not as now uniformly used in the beginning of nouns, and that a perpendicular line could be used instead of a comma or colon. Luther used to write especially the more emphatic nouns with capitals. In the learned literature of our day, there is an attempt being made to restore the usage of a still older period, when capitals were used only in the case of proper nouns and at the beginning of stanzas. This learned literature usually, however, makes one exception, namely that sentences begin with capitals. There does not seem to be at present much outlook for a triumph of this usage.

The orthography, which has gradually developed since Luther's day, has had since 1880 a formidable rival. In that year Prussia, the largest German state, issued a little book containing rules for a reform of the orthography. Also other states had adopted a reformed spelling, but the Prussian orthography naturally found the widest support. School-books followed closely the proposed reforms; books, newspapers, and periodicals designed for the general public held more or less conservatively to the old order of things; scholars dissatisfied with the lack of thoroughness in the reforms went still further in the direction of conforming the orthography to the spoken language. In 1901 a few additional changes in the direction of simplicity were proposed by an orthographical conference, which have been approved by the governments of the German Empire, Austria, and Switzerland. Thus these movements for reform have culminated in an official orthography for the German-speaking peoples. Although there is at present considerable confusion in this matter there can be little doubt but that the official orthography will in time supersede all others.

The confusion in the orthography is accompanied by a difference of usage with respect to the style of the letters. The so-called German alphabet, which gradually arose in early times among the monks throughout Europe as a modified form of the Latin alphabet, was continued after printing was invented, but was later dropped by other nations, who returned to the Latin letters. In Germany the love for the old German alphabet is deeply rooted, and the Latin characters find favor only in learned circles and newspaper advertisements.

In our time, another interesting process is going on. The North has at last gained the political and literary ascendancy in Germany, and it in its turn, after South and Middle Germany have each in their turn had their day, is moulding and fashioning the language. Maritime terms from the Low German coasts and other speech-forms from the North in general are finding their way into the literature and, what is much more important, the pronunciation of the North is gradually making itself felt, and hence in this book is offered as the model pronunciation for a foreigner. Thus the literary German of our day is the product of all three parts of Germany. South and Middle Germany created it, and North Germany is giving it its sounds, and is enriching its vocabulary.

GERMAN ALPHABET

GERMAN TYPE.	GERMAN SCRIPT.	GERMAN NAME.	GERMAN TYPE.	GERMAN SCRIPT.	GERMAN NAME.
A a	<i>A a</i>	ah	N n	<i>N n</i>	enn
B b	<i>B b</i>	bay	O o	<i>O o</i>	o
C c	<i>C c</i>	tsay	P p	<i>P p</i>	pay
D d	<i>D d</i>	day	Q q	<i>Q q</i>	coo
E e	<i>E e</i>	ay	R r	<i>R r</i>	airr
F f	<i>F f</i>	eff	S s*	<i>S s, ß</i>	ess
G g	<i>G g</i>	gay	T t	<i>T t</i>	tay
H h	<i>H h</i>	hah	U u	<i>U u</i>	oo
I i	<i>I i</i>	ec	V v	<i>V v</i>	fow
J j	<i>J j</i>	yott	W w	<i>W w</i>	vay
K k	<i>K k</i>	kah	X x	<i>X x</i>	iks
L l	<i>L l</i>	ell	Y y	<i>Y y</i>	ypsilon
M m	<i>M m</i>	emm	Z z	<i>Z z</i>	tsett

MODIFIED VOWELS †

Ä ä	Ö ö	Ü ü	Äu äu
<i>Ä ä</i>	<i>Ö ö</i>	<i>Ü ü</i>	<i>Äu äu</i>
Ä ä	Ö ö	Ü ü	Äu äu

COMPOUND CONSONANTS

ch	ck	ph	th	ß	sch	Et	it	ff	ß†
tsay-hah	tsay-kah	pay-hah	tay-hah	tay-tsett	ess-tsay-hah	ess-tay	ess-tay	ess-ess	ess-tsett
<i>ch</i>	<i>ck</i>	<i>ph</i>	<i>th</i>	<i>ß</i>	<i>sch</i>	<i>Et</i>	<i>it</i>	<i>ff</i>	<i>ß</i>

* s at the end, ß at the beginning and middle.

† In naming the modified vowels give their phonetic values, i. e. *ä*, *ö*, *y*, or say mutated *a*, &c.

‡ See 4. 2. D.

O Künstler feiergläusau, wie im Laute
Auf der Gedächtnis selbst das Haus gebaut!
O zweites Künstler, wie im Glut die Asche
An Fall verpöndelt, der das Ohr nur trifft:
Nicht Willkür spielt das Wort, sonst wäre's toll,
Es ist das Geistes notwendiges Symbol.

(Faibel.)

Es gibt eine formale Falschheit ohne
inneren Gehalt. Auf so wertvoller
Gehalt in einer Künstlerseele ruht,
Da ringt er auf nach Gestalt in
ausdrucksvollender Form. Das Ringen
kommt dem Gehalt selbst zu gute
und erfüllt den Leeren der Formkraft
in Stup, während es ihn zu erschaffen scheint.
(Kreutzer.)

PART I

PHONOLOGY AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

1. *Best Pronunciation.* In Germany there is no standard of pronunciation that is acknowledged and absolutely followed by the mass of intelligent people. The so-called standard of some people is the pronunciation of the stage, which again is divided into the pronunciation of tragedy and comedy. In the latter of course is heard the more natural pronunciation of everyday life. The sectional differences in pronunciation are very marked, but in general there is a North German and a South German pronunciation. The historic memories of Germany lie in the South, but the present and future seem firmly seated in the North. For a foreigner who is not interested in party, it is only natural that he choose the language of the enterprising, vigorous North. A widespread impression prevails that the Hanoverian pronunciation is to be preferred among these northern pronunciations. There appears no real justification of this general impression in the facts of the case. Hanover is not a great center of power that can now or in the future exert such a magic charm over the development of things as to turn toward itself the thought and speech of Germany. On the other hand, mighty centralizing forces are at work in the nation's great capital city which sooner or later will make themselves felt in a tangible way. The logic of events seems to point to the North in general, and to Berlin in particular, for the best pronunciation. The following short treatise takes into account the pronunciation of different sections, but deals principally with colloquial North German as spoken by the mass of intelligent people, as nearly as such a common standard can be ascertained under the existing circumstances. Many Germans may differ in particulars as to this standard. Oratorical German, which is in general more conformed to the written language, is only briefly considered here.

SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS AND THEIR CLASSIFICATION.

2. *A. Sounds of the Letters.* The growth of letters has not kept pace with that of sounds, hence one letter may represent several sounds. Phonetic symbols are used in the following treatise to distinguish the different sounds of the letters. In the following table only an approximate equivalent is given for each German sound, the more accurate description being reserved for fuller treatment in the succeeding articles. The first number after the

phonetic symbol refers to an article which gives a more accurate description of the sound. The second number refers to an article which gives the various spellings for the sound.

PHONETIC SYMBOLS.

ă	<i>a</i> (16. 2. (a); 16. 2. (b))	as <i>a</i> in father, but sharper.
ā, aa, ah	<i>a:</i> (16. 1. (a); 16. 1. (b))	as <i>a</i> in father.
ae = ă (26. A); in Dutch names = ā (16. 1. b. (7)); elsewhere = <i>a + e</i> : <i>Mich'ael, Herae'der, Aero-</i> <i>naut'</i> (<i>e</i> = <i>ě</i>), &c.		
ai	<i>aï</i> (22)	as <i>i</i> in pine.
ai in French words = ā (13. 1. (b). (4)); = ă (14. (b))		
ain in French words = <i>eng</i> (see 25)		
am, au in French words = <i>ang</i> (see 25)		
au	<i>au</i> (23)	as <i>ou</i> in loud.
au = ō (18. 1. (b). (8)); = <i>a + u</i> (23. Note)		
aw = ā in <i>Shawl</i> ; 33. 4. (4)		
ay = ai ; see 22. (4)		
ä	<i>ε</i> (14. a; 14. b)	as <i>e</i> in let.
ā, āh	<i>ε:</i> (13. 1. (a); 13. 1. (b))	a prolonged <i>ε</i> .
āu	<i>oï</i>	as <i>oy</i> in boy.
āu = ā + u (24. Note 3)		
b or bb	<i>b</i> (29; 30. 4)	as <i>b</i> in bat.
b final or next a voiceless consonant = <i>p</i>		
c before front vowels (see 6. a) = <i>ʒ</i> (<i>ts</i>)		
c in some French words = <i>ʃ</i> (<i>s</i>); see 33. 2. (8)		
ç or ç = <i>ʃ</i> (<i>s</i>).		
c in some Italian words = <i>f</i> or <i>tf</i> (33. 4. (5))		
c elsewhere = <i>f</i>		
ch after <i>au</i> or a back vowel (see 6. b)	<i>x</i> (32. 3. b)	
ch elsewhere in German words	<i>ç</i> (32. 3. a)	
ch in foreign words; 32. 3. <i>a. Note</i>		
chf or chs = <i>fʃ</i> ; see 30. 3. (2)		
ch after short vowels = <i>f</i>		
d or dd	<i>d</i> (29; 30. 5)	as <i>d</i> in day.

ɖ final or next a voiceless
consonant = **t**

ẽ = **ä**

ē, ee, eh *e*: (11. 1. (a); 11. 1. (b)) as *a* in *bake*.

e unaccented *ə* (21)

é in French words = **ē**

eau in French words = **ō**

ee in English words = **ī**;
see 7. 1. (b). (7)

ei = **ai**; in a number of
foreign words = **e + i**:
Ätheit', Deis'mus, &c.

ein in French words = **eng**
(*ey*); see 25

em, en in French words =
ang (*ay*); see 25

eo = **e + o**: *Théorie* (*tē:ō:ri:*)
Theodor (*te:ō:do:r*)

eu = **au**; final or before
a single consonant in
French words = **ō** (12.
1. (b). (5)); elsewhere
in French words = **ö**
(15. (b). (2)); in certain
foreign words = **e + u**
(24. Note 2)

ey in proper names = **ai**;
see 22. (3)

ey final in *Boffey* = **ē** or **ai**
(see 11. 1. (b). (5))

f *f* (32. 1; 33. 1) . . . as *f* in *fine*.

g initial *g* (29; 30. 6) . . . as *g* in *good*.

g medial after front vowels
= **j**; see 35. 3. (2)

g medial after back vowels *g* (34. 4; 35. 4)

g final after front vowels =
ɖ in *idɖ*

g final after back vowels =
ɖ in *adɖ*

g after **n** is silent; see 36. *b*

g in some French words before **e** or **i** *ɝ* (34. 5; 35. 5) . . . as *g* in *rouge*.

g in some English words
= *dʒ* (see 39. 4)

gg medial after short vowel
= *g*; see 30. 6. (3)

gh in German names = *ɣ*;
in foreign words = *g*

gu in foreign words = *ɣn*
and *nj*; see 36. c. (5)

gu before front vowels in
foreign words = *g*; see
30. 6. (4)

h initial *h* (28) as *h* in *hat*.

h elsewhere silent

ī *i* (9. I. (a); 9. I. (b)) . . . as *i* in *pīn*.

ī, ih *i:* (7. I. (a); 7. I. (b)) . . . as *i* in *machine*.

i unaccented before a vowel
= *i*; see 9. 2

ie, ieh = *i*

ie and **iè** in foreign words;
see 7. I. (b). *Note* 1

ier in French words = *jè:* or
i:R; see 7. I. (b). *Note* 1

ieu = *jö*; = *eu* (24. (5))

il, ill in French words; see
39. 5

im, in in French words =
eng (*eny*); see 25

j *j* (34. 3; 35. 3) . . . as *y* in *yes*.

j in French words = French
g before *e* or *i*; see 34.
5; 35. 5

j in English words = *dʒ*;
see 39. 4

k *k* (29; 30. 3) . . . as *k* in *kind*.

l *l* (37. 1) . . . as *l* in *let*.

m *m* (36. a) . . . as *m* in *man*.

n except before *c, g, t, q* . . . *n* (36. a) . . . as *n* in *no*.

n before *c, g, t, q*; see 36. c. (3)
ng = *ŋ*; see 36. b

ö *o* (17. a; 17. b) . . . as *o* in *Noah*.

ö, oh, ov *o:* (18. I. a; 18. I. b) . . . as *o* in *heroic*.

oa in *Goafē* (or *Stofē*) = *ö*; in
Goaft = *ö* or *ö:a'*; else-
where = *o* + *a*: *Stoā'fe*,
&c.

oe = *ö* (26. A); in L.G.
names = *ö* (18. I. (b).
(5)); in Dutch words
= *u* (20. I. (b). (8)); else-
where = *o* + *e*: *Boet'*, &c.

oey = *ö* in *Oeynhausen*

oi in L.G. names = *ö* (18. I.
(b). (6)); in L.G. words
= *eu* (24. (3)); in French
words = *ö:a*: or *ö:a* (18.
I. (b). (5) and 2. (b)); else-
where = *ö:i:*: *Trapezoid'*,
&c.

om, ou in French words =

ong (*oŋ*); see 25

ou in French words = \bar{u} (20.

1. (*b*). (7)); = \ddot{u} (19. (*b*). (3))

ow in L.G. and Eng. words

= \bar{v} (18. 1. (*b*). (7)); in Sla-

vonian words = *ov* medi-

ally and *of* finally or

before a consonant

oy in foreign words = $\delta\gamma$

(35. 3. (5)); = *eu* (24. (4))

\ddot{v} α (15. (*a*); 15. (*b*))

\bar{v} , $\bar{v}h$ \emptyset (12. 1. *a*; 12. 1. (*b*)) . .

φ ϕ (29; 30. 1) as ϕ in *pen*.

φf = $\varphi + f$; 39. 1

φh , $\varphi\varphi h$ = f ; see 33. 1. (4).

(5)

qu = *tw* and *f*; see 39. 7

r uvular *R* (34. 6)

δ , f , \ddot{h} , \ddot{h} ; see 33. 2 *s* (32. 2; 33. 2) as *ss* in *moss*.

f initial and medial; 35. 2. *z* (34. 2; 35. 2) as *s* in *rose*.

(1. (2))

\int \int (32. 4; 33. 4) as *sh* in *shave*.

fh in English words = \int

fp, ft initial in stem syllable

= \int φ , \int \dot{t} ; 33. 4. (2)

t, th, tt, dt *t* (29; 30. 2) as *t* in *ten*.

ti = \ddot{t} (*tsj*); see 39. 3. (10)

\ddot{h} = \ddot{h} ; see 39. 3. (2). (3)

\ddot{u} *u* (19. *a*; 19. *b*). . . . as *u* in *put*.

\ddot{u} , $\ddot{u}h$ *u*: (20. 1. (*a*); 20. 1. (*b*)) as *oo* in *booty*.

u = *v* (35. 1. (5). (6). (7). (8));

in French words = \bar{u}

ue = \bar{u} (26. A); in the name

Rosebue = \bar{u} ; in French

words = \bar{u} (8. 1. (*b*). (6));

elsewhere = $u + \epsilon$: Duell'

ui = \bar{u} (8. 1. (*b*). (4)); = *eu* (24.

(6)); = *vi*: (35. 1. (8));

elsewhere = $u + i$: $\ddot{u}i\ddot{e}$

($\ddot{u}i\ddot{e}$: $\ddot{z}\ddot{e}$), $\ddot{u}i\ddot{t}\ddot{p}\ddot{o}\ddot{l}\ddot{d}$ (the

$i = \ddot{i}$: or *i*)

um, un in French words =

ong (*oŋ*); see 25

uo = $u\ddot{o}$: Ruoni (name)

\ddot{y} γ (10. *a*; 10. *b*)

\ddot{y} , $\ddot{y}h$ γ : (8. 1. (*a*); 8. 1. (*b*)).

v = \ddot{f} ; see 33. 1. (2). (3)

v medial in Low German

words = *w*; see 35. 1. (4)

v initial and medial in foreign words = *w*; see 35. 1. (3)

w *v* (34. 1; 35. 1) . . . as *v* in *very*.

x = *fš*; see 39. 2

x = *f* in *Don Quirote* (*don'-kř:řot*)

ŷ, ȳ = *ï, î* or *ÿ, ü* (see 9. 1. (b). (6); 10. (b). (3); 7. 1. (b). (5). (6); 8. 1. (b). (5). *Note*)

ȳ in some foreign words = *ï*; see 35. 3. (5)

ȳ in some Dutch words = *ai*; see 22. 5

ž = *tš*; see 39. 3. (1)

ž = *ř* (*z*); see 35. 2. (3).

B. Classification of Sounds.

I. Vowels.

Vowels may be classified from different points of view The vowels are here classified according to the horizontal movement (see 3. 1. *a*, below) of the tongue in forming them. The various modifications of these sounds are treated later under each vowel.

SIMPLE VOWELS.

Front Vowels.

i, y, ě, ě, e, ø, ε, ε, œ.

Back Vowels.

a:, a, o, o:, u, u:.

DIPHTHONGS.

aŷ, oř (*eu* or *äu*), *ař* (*ei* or *ai*).

The Mixed Vowel *ə* (see 21).

II. Consonants.

The aspirate *h* (a voiceless vowel, but in function always a consonant with the acoustic effect of a voiceless spirant).

					Consonant-Vowels.	
	Stops (explosives)		Spirants.		Nasals.	Liquids.
	Voiceless.	Voiced.	Voiceless.	Voiced.	Voiced.	Voiced.
Labials . .	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>v</i>	<i>m</i>	
Linguals . .	<i>t</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>s, f</i> (32. 4)	<i>z, ʒ</i> (34. 5)	<i>n</i>	<i>l, r</i> (37. 2)
Palatals . .	<i>k</i>	<i>g</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{ç (32. 3. a)} \\ \text{x (32. 3. b)} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{j} \\ \text{ʒ (34. 4)} \\ \text{r (34. 6)} \end{array} \right\}$	<i>y</i> (36. b)	
Glottal stop .	ʔ (see 38)					

Note. The sounds have here been divided into the two usual classes of vowels and consonants upon the basis of the function usually performed by the various sounds. A vowel can form of itself a syllable. A consonant does not of itself form a syllable,

but is only used in conjunction with vowels to form syllables. Hence the above classification does not always hold good. The consonants l, m, n, r, are sometimes used as vowels; see 41. 4. The vowels found as the less sonorous element of diphthongs are in fact consonants. The vowel i often becomes a consonant in certain positions; see 35. 3. (4). The classification of sounds upon the basis of function does not always help us in gaining a correct conception of the nature or formation of the various sounds. Thus l, m, n, and lingual r (r) do not differ in any essential point from vowels in their formation, though upon the basis of function they must in most cases be classified as consonants. Thus also h does not materially differ in formation from the simple vowels a, o, ü, &c., except that the vocal chords do not vibrate, but it is here classified as a consonant, as it always has the function of a consonant; see 28, *Note*.

FORMATION OF SOUNDS.

3. 1. In forming a vowel the mouth remains more or less open, and the vocal chords vibrate. Each new position of the tongue produces a new vowel, which may again be modified in various ways. The tongue movements and various modifications can only be briefly treated here.

a. Tongue Movements. The tongue moves horizontally and vertically—backwards and forwards, upwards and downwards. The horizontal movement results in three general classes of sounds, *back* vowels formed by the back part of the tongue, *front* vowels formed by the front part of the tongue, *mixed* vowels formed by allowing the tongue to drop into a neutral position, in which neither articulation predominates. The vertical movement of the tongue results in three general classes, *high* vowels formed by raising the tongue close to the roof of the mouth, *mid* vowels by raising the tongue moderately, *low* vowels by lowering the tongue. These positions will be discussed later with each vowel.

b. Rounding. Vowels are rounded by protruding the lips as in whistling. Thus by rounding, *i*, *í*, *e*, *ε*, become *y*, *ý*, *ø*, *æ*; see 8, 10, 12, 15.

c. Narrowness, Wideness. A sound is said to be 'narrow' when the muscles of the tongue become tense and bulge up, and thus narrow the resonance chamber. When a sound is formed without this tenseness it is said to be 'wide.' The difference between *e*: and *ε*: is that the former is narrow and the latter wide. In North German all long vowels except *ā* and *ā* (*ε*:) are narrow and all short ones wide. This explains the strong tendency to pronounce *ā* as *e*: instead of *ε*:. These modifications will be given later in connection with each vowel.

d. Nasality. In forming nasal vowels the breath passes through the nose as well as the mouth. Nasality is the characteristic of vowels in many words from the French; see 25.

2. In forming consonants the mouth is either closed as in the case of stops and nasals, or narrowed as in the case of spirants. The distinguishing feature of a consonant is the friction, or stopping of the breath in some part of the mouth or throat. If voice enters into the formation of a consonant, that is, if the vocal chords vibrate in producing it, it is said to be voiced, otherwise it is voiceless. The formation of the different consonants is described later.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS.

4. I. General rules.

a. Accented vowels are long when final, or before a vowel or one consonant: *nā*, *Se-en*, *Māl*, *mā-len*. Notice that, if a vowel follows the stem, the final consonant is always carried over, and the stem syllable becomes open, i. e. terminates with a vowel.

The quantity of the vowel must be ascertained from the simple stem of the word, the inflectional endings that may be added not counting: *der Hūt*, *des Hūts*; *loben*, *du lobst*, *gelobt*.

Note. To the, in general, very reliable rule that the vowel of the simple stem gives the quantity to the derivative forms, there are exceptions: (1) Exceptions among weak verbs are limited to the following cases: *ich habe*, *du hast*, *er hat*, *er hätte*, *gehäbt*, *ich friege* (*kni:ja*) *I get*, *du friegst* (*kni:st*), *er friegt* (*kni:st*), *friegte* (*kni:stə*), *gefriegt* (*gəkni:st*), the isolated participial adjective *beredt* (also *beredt*) *eloquent*, from *reden*. (2) A difference of vowel or consonant sometimes makes the quantity irregular in strong or irregular verbs: *ich nehme*, *du nimmst*. The special cases are noted under the strong verbs. (3) The monosyllabic form of the nouns ending in *b*, *d*, *f*, *g*, *g* are often in N.G. short instead of long, since the difference in the pronunciation of these consonants finally and medially has prevented the spreading of the long vowel from the open lengthened forms to the closed monosyllabic forms: *der Tag* or *Täg*, but always *des Tages*. See 2. B. *b. Note* (1) below. (4) The adverbs *weg* (*weg* or *wek*) and *flugs* (*fluks*) have retained the old short vowel, as they are always in a closed syllable, while in *Weg* and *Flug* it has become long after the analogy of the lengthened forms *Weges* and *Fluges*. See 2. B. *b. Note* (1) below. (5) A difference may arise from the absence of the feeling of the original connection of the words: *heer*, but *Herzog*; *heer*, but *fertig*, &c.

b. An accented vowel standing before two or more consonants is usually short and the syllable is closed, i. e. terminates in a consonant, but it is long in the special cases (see 2. A. *d.* (2), (3), below), where the syllable is open: *Ball*, *Halt*, *fin=ten*, *fa=ten*, but *Hö=dra*. Thus a vowel in an accented open syllable is always long, whether it stands before one consonant or more: *mā-len*, *Mē=trif*, &c. A vowel is short in a few words before *one* consonant, and the syllable is closed: *Stät'er* (also *Stä'fer*), *Grammāt'if*, *grammāt'isch*, *Hotel'*, *Kapit'el*, *Metaph'er* (*ph* = *f*), *Reli'f*, *Säp'h'ir*, *Süth'er* (*th* = *t*), &c.

Note. The great majority of the long vowels of the language have corresponding short ones in M.H.G. At the beginning of the present period all short vowels became long in open syllables, i. e. where the final consonant of the stem was carried over to the next syllable. Thus M.H.G. *bānen*, *gēben*, *hōnec*, *gibel*, became *bāh=nen*, *gē=ben*, *Hō=nig*, *Gie=bel*. Before one consonant the syllable was usually open and the vowel became long. Before a combination of consonants and before the heavy simple consonantal sounds, *ch*, *f* (only, however, the new *f* developed from Germanic *p*; see 40. i. *c*), *ß*, usually *t*, and sometimes *m*, the syllable was closed and the vowel remained short: M.H.G. *hālden*, *lāchen*, *geschliffen*, *ēzzen*, *geritten*, *vrömen*, remain short, *hālden*, *lāchen*, *geschliffen*, *essen*, *geritten*, *frommen*. In foreign words, however, a syllable is often open and the vowel long before a combination of consonants; see 2. A. *d.* (3), below.

Wherever a vowel became long in an open syllable the same quantity was later extended for the sake of uniformity to the closed syllables of the same inflectional system. See 2. B. *b. Note* (1), below.

The above described lengthening of short vowels in open syllables did not take place in parts of the S. W., which still preserve here the old historic short sound.

c. Unaccented simple vowels are short, except when final:

glauben, Fürst, Frühling, &c. Unaccented final vowels except *e* are long. See 2. B. *c.* and *Note* thereunder.

2. Rules for Quantity in Detail.

A. The following are long:—

a. A diphthong: Gauh, Gähle.

b. Doubled vowels and *ie*: Paar, Meer, Boot, bieten. Only *a*, *e*, *o* can be doubled. They must, however, be written single when mutated: Paar, but Pärchen.

c. Simple accented vowels when final, or before a vowel or one consonant: nā, Eēn, kaden, Mikroskōp'. Exceptions: April', grōb (but long in open syllables, as in grō-ber, &c.), Kapit'el, Lūther, Zīther, &c.

The length of the vowel may also be indicated by a silent *h*: Wahl, ihm, ihn, &c.

d. Simple accented vowels are sometimes long before more than one consonant:

(1) The vowels *a*, *e*, and less frequently other vowels, are long before *r* + a dental (*v*, *t*, *z*, *s*, *sch*): wērden, Schwērt, Quārz, &c. Thus these vowels are long, although they stand in closed syllables; see B. *b.* *Note* (2) below. This pronunciation is a new development, and is not yet universally recognized.

(2) Vowels are sometimes long before *st*, *bst*, *pt*, *tsh*, and in still other cases. The words will be given later under the respective vowels. In all these cases the consonants should be carried over to the next syllable wherever it is possible, so that the accented syllable may be open: S=stern, bū=ster, &c.

Note. These vowels were long or were diphthongs in earlier periods of the language, and hence their length has nothing to do with the process of lengthening explained in 1. *b.* *Note*, above. In general, long vowels have come down to us long, whatever their position may have been. There is, however, in our own period a tendency to shorten a long vowel before a combination of consonants, especially before *cht* and *n* + consonant, and also before the simple consonantal sound *sch* (*/ʃ*). In some words the vowels have already become short, as in *dicht* (M.H.G. *dīhte*), *stund* (M.H.G. *stuont*), *ging*, *sing*, *hing* for older *gieng*, *fieng*, *hieng*, &c. In others the quantity is at present doubtful: *bräsch* or *bräsch*, *wüch* or *wuch*, *wüsch* or *wüsch*, &c.

(3) In many words from the Latin or Greek, the consonants between vowels, especially a stop (*p*, *t*, *f*, *b*, *d*, *g*) + *r* or *l*, are carried over to the next syllable, as in the original. This leaves the preceding syllable open, which according to German usage (see 1. *b.* above) becomes long: Mī=tra, Mē=trüm, &c., also in words with secondary stress, as in Mī'=fro=skōp', &c.

B. Short:—

a. Simple vowels before double consonants, or two or more different consonants: Gatter, Hunde.

b. Simple vowels before one consonant in some uninflected forms, and in a few inflected monosyllabics that do not form open syllables in the course of inflection: an, in, ab, um, weg, mit, von, ob, bis, das, daß, was, bin, bist, ist, the article der, des, &c. (pronounced *dər*, *dēs*, &c. in careful speaking or declaiming, but ordinarily *dər*, *dəs*, &c., with weak stress). Such monosyllabics are, however, always long if they contain a *h*, final *r* (except in the article), or accented

=em, =en : ihm, ihn, wer (*ve:R*), vor, empor, the demonstrative and relative der (*de:R*), dem (*de:m*), den (*de:n*), &c.

Note. (1) The reason that the vowel of most of the above words is short is that it always stands in a closed syllable. Formerly the vowel of monosyllabic nouns ending in a single consonant could also be short, as in *Grām, Stīf*. At the beginning of the present period these same vowels became long in all lengthened forms in accordance with the new law that lengthened all short vowels in open syllables: *Grāmes, Stītes*. See 1. *b.* above and *Note* thereunder. The long vowel of the lengthened forms, following the general trend toward uniformity throughout the same inflectional system, spread later to the closed syllables. Thus *Grām, Stīf* became *Grām, Stīf*. For several little irregularities see 1. *a. Note* (3), above. As the above-mentioned short closed forms were never inflected, or never became open in the course of their inflection, they remained short.

(2) Final *r* had an effect upon a preceding accented vowel differing from that of other final consonants. It usually lengthened the vowel, although it closed the syllable, as in *vūr*, *wēr*, &c. It also had the same effect medially in certain cases; see A. 4. (1) above.

In S.G. vowels become long in closed syllables also before other consonants : *Rōpf*, *Rīfch*, &c.

c. Unaccented simple vowels are short except when final: *hǎltēn*, *Gefāng'nīs*, *Herr'in*, &c. Unaccented final vowels except *e* are long. Long unaccented final vowels occur in a few isolated words, as *U'hū*, *Šču'hū*, and in a number of names, as *Dr'tō*, *Bru'nō*, *Hri'dā*, *Her'tā*, &c. Aside from these words and suffixes, such as *-līch*, *-iit*, *-ling*, &c., which have secondary accent, weak *e* (*ə*) is now the only German vowel found outside the accented root syllable, as the various fuller vowels of earlier periods have, under the effect of weak stress, been all reduced to this one form. Of course compounds *may* deviate from this rule, as the components retain the quantity which they have as independent words: *Šchlittšchūh*, *Šchiffāhrt*, &c. Also the heavy suffixes *āt*, *jān*, *bār*, *fāl*, *tūm*, *ūt*, usually also *fām*, which were in part once independent words, form exceptions to the rule: *Hei'rāt*, *hōr'bār*, &c.

Note. Other vowels than *e* are, however, often found in unaccented syllables in foreign words, and it should be noted that they do not, except in final syllables, conform to the German rule for quantity. Foreign vowels except *e* are long when final: *An'nā*, *Sa'lomō*, *Al'ibī*, &c. Also final *e* is long in a few words: *Al'thē'nē*, *Gaff'mīfē*, *Le'thē*, &c. Elsewhere unaccented *a*, *ā*, *e*, *i*, *o*, *ō*, *u*, *ū*, which stand in an open syllable before a single consonant or a combination of consonants, vary from half long to short. Except in final syllables they are, however, unlike the usual short vowels in *quality*, but in this respect are exactly like the usual long vowels, only pronounced a little more quickly, and hence to distinguish them from the usual short sounds they will hereafter be marked by the breve ˘ over the usual character for the long sound: *Migrāne* (mī˘grā˘nē), *Defret* (dē˘fret˘). In long words the vowel that has secondary accent is often really long: *Etymologie* (e˘˙˘˘mō˘lō˘gī˘). In a number of common words, however, the *o*, sometimes also *e*, is pronounced as short German *o* or *e* and the syllable becomes closed: *Kolonie* (kolō˘nī˘), *Kolnabe* (kolnā˘bē), *Kolonne* (kolō˘nē), *Koloß* (kolō˘s), *koloßal* (kolō˘sāl˘), *Komitee* (komī˘tē˘), *Krofobil* (kro˘fō˘bī˘l˘), *Schotolabe* (sokō˘lā˘bē), *Trophäe* (tro˘fē˘), *chevaleresk* (che˘vā˘lērē˘sk). In unaccented final syllables terminating in a consonant they have uniformly the usual pronunciation of the corresponding short German vowels: *Doktor* (dok˘tōr), *Metrum* (mē˘trūm), *Gober* (ko˘dē˘s), *Mystik* (mys˘tik), &c., but *Theodor* (tē˘dō˘dō˘r), &c.

In many common words *e* becomes *ê* instead of *è*: or *e* if it follows an accent and sometimes even a secondary accent: Cholera (*ko' lèra*), Avancement (*avan' sèmaj'*), &c.

d. Long vowels become short in words which by reason of their

lack of logical importance in the sentence remain entirely without accent, but such vowels retain the *quality* they originally had as long vowels, and to distinguish them from the usual short vowels they are marked by a breve ˘ over the usual character for the long sound: *Wir i'ŭ, als o'b ich die (dī:) Hā'nde | Auf's Hā'upt dir le'gen ſo'llt'. Ich ha'b dich geli'eбет so (zō:) mā'nches Ja'hr.*

C. Rules for doubling to show that the vowel is short. A single consonant must be doubled after a short vowel, but in the following cases variations occur:—

a. The final consonant in the suffixes *nis*, *in*, *aß*, *eß*, *iß*, *oß*, and *uß* remains single when no inflectional ending follows, but when an additional syllable is added, the *s* and *n* are doubled: *das Gefängnis*, but *des Gefängnisses*, pl. *die Gefängnisse*; *die Königin*, pl. *die Königinnen*.

b. Instead of double *g* the combination *gh* is used: *die Rüge*.

c. Instead of double *f* the combination *ff* is used: *schrecken*, but *erjchräff* with only one *f* as the vowel is long.

d. The combinations *ng*, *sch*, *ch* are never doubled after a short vowel like the other characters representing simple consonantal sounds. Doubling does not take place here from an aversion to heaping up too many unsightly letters. Before *ng* and *sch* a simple vowel is quite uniformly short. Before *ch* the vowel is sometimes short, sometimes long, as will be noted below under the different vowels.

e. When from a verbal stem containing a double consonant a derivative word is formed by means of the suffixes *b*, *t*, or *st*, the double consonant becomes single: *Gespinnst* from *spinnen*; *Gewinst* from *gewinnen*; *Geschäft* from *schaffen*; *kund* from *kennen*; *Gestalt* from *stellen*, &c.

f. When a vowel in the suffix is dropped, bringing doubled consonants and a following consonant together, one of the doubled consonants is dropped, as there will still be two consonants left to show that the preceding vowel is short: *Grumt*, *Kumt*, *Samt*, *Last*, &c., for *Grummet*, *Kummet*, *Sammet*, *Lastet*, &c. Similarly in compounds: *Schiffahrt*, &c., for *Schiffahrt*, &c.

D. Quantity Unascertainable from Position:

a. Before *ff* the vowel is always short: *essen*, &c. Before *ß* the vowel is long, if a vowel follows *ß*: *äßen*. Double *ß* is always written *ß* at the end of a word or before a consonant, so that in these positions the quantity of the vowel cannot be ascertained: *biß*, *aßt*, *Fluß*, *Buß*. The quantity can be ascertained when a vowel follows in the inflectional ending: *des Flüßes*, *des Bußes*; *ich biß*, *du bißest*; *ihr äßt*, *ſie äßen*.

b. Before *ch* the vowel is sometimes short, sometimes long: *brächen*, *bräch*, *gebröchen*.

PRONUNCIATION OF THE DIFFERENT VOWELS.

5. The following description of the vowels is only approximately correct. Even the most scientific analysis cannot take the place

of *viva voce* pronunciation of sounds. The pronunciation given is for *accented* vowels unless otherwise stated.

6. (a). The *front* vowels, so called because in their formation the tongue is advanced to the front part of the mouth, are *i*, *ü*, *ī*, *ū*, *ē*, *ö*, *ä* (*ë*), *ö* in the order of the positions of the tongue, beginning in the front of the mouth and moving backward.

(b). The *back* vowels in the order of the positions of the tongue, beginning a little behind the middle of the mouth and moving backward, are *a*, *o*, *ō*, *ū*, *ü*.

(c). There is a vowel in which neither front nor back articulation prevails. This is unaccented *e* (*ə*), which from its manner of articulation is called mixed *e*. See 21.

FRONT VOWELS.

The sounds of the front vowels follow in their order:

7. 1. (a). *i*: (*ī*), the high-front-narrow vowel (see 3. 1. *a* and *c*), is pronounced like *i* in *machine*. It is found in accented open syllables and in closed ones before *h* and *r*: *Lie-be*, *ihm*, *mir*; also in other closed syllables which become open when an inflectional ending follows: *Stiel*, *des Stie-leß*; see 4. 2. B. *b. Note* (1).

(b). *i*: is written: (1) *ie* (or *ieh*) in all German words except *mir*, *dir*, *wir*, *ihm*, *ihn*, *ihnen*, *ihr*, *ihrer*, *ihrig*, *Igel*, *Isegrim*, *Biber*, *Lid*, *wider*; (2) *ie* also in foreign words that have become thoroughly naturalized, as in *Brief*, *Paradies*, &c.; (3) *i* or *ie* in accented syllables before one consonant, or finally in many foreign words, written *i* or *ie* according as they were spelled in the language from which they were taken, as in *Maschine*, *Artillerie*, &c., but written *ie* uniformly in foreign verbs, as in *studieren*; (4) *y* (representing *ij* = *ī* in an older orthography, and hence different in origin and sound from the *y* in 8. 1. *b.* (5)) before one consonant in S.G. and Swiss proper names, as *Schwyz*; (5) *y* before one consonant in words from the Greek, as in *Analyse*, &c., where, however, the pronunciation *y*: is also heard, as explained in 8. 1. *b.* (5) and the *Note* thereunder; (6) *y* final in other foreign words, as in *Jury*, *Willy*, &c.; (7) *ee* in a few words from the English, as in *Spleen*, *Danfee* (*jeŋ'ki*:).

Note 1. Foreign words in *ie* present many difficulties: (1) Words in *ier* fall into two groups, which have been introduced into the language at different periods and have developed a different pronunciation. The older group is pronounced *i:ə*, the younger group *je:*: *Offizier* (*of:tsi:ə*'), *Rentier* (*rentje:*'). No safe rule can be given to distinguish these groups except that the verbs uniformly have the pronunciation *i:ə*. Elsewhere the dictionary must be consulted. (2) Accented *ie* = *i:* in *Marie*, *Sophie*, *Kolonie*, &c., but = *i:ə* in lengthened forms as *mari:əns*, *kolo:ni:ən*, &c. Also notice the difference between the French *Marie* (*mari:*'), *Sophie* (*sɔ:fi:*') and the Latin forms *Marie* (*mari:ə*'), *St. Marie* (*mari:ə*'), &c. (3) French *id* = *je:* or after German manner *je:*, as in *Carrière* or now *Karriere* (*karje:ə* or *karje:ə*'), &c. (4) *ie* in some words = *je:* before one consonant and *je* before more than one: *Piedestal* (*pje:destal*'), but *Serviette* (*servjet'ə*). (5) *ie* = *i:ə* in *Gieroglyphen*: = *ke:* in *Hygie'ne*. (6) Unaccented *ie* = *jə*, but = *i:* if it has secondary stress. *Glorie* (*glo:ri:jə*'), but *Cellerie* (*zel'eri:*').

Note 2. In German words *ie* was originally a diphthong, and hence both vowels were pronounced. Later *ie* became merely long *i*, the *e* serving as a sign of the length of the preceding vowel, and words which originally had no *e* after the *i* took it to show that the *i* was long. For example see 4. 2. B. *b. Note* (1). In the S.G. dialects *ie* is still pronounced as a diphthong in words that had it originally.

2. In unaccented open non-final syllables *i* (also *ɨ*) has the same sound, only pronounced a little more quickly and must not be confounded with *i* in closed syllables described in 9. 1. (*a*): Militär (*mī:lī:te:R'*). See 4. 2. B. c. Note.

8. 1. (*a*). *y*: (*ü*), the high-front-narrow-round vowel, does not exist in English speech. It is formed by placing the tongue into the position for *i*: (or, more accurately, by lowering somewhat the back part of the tongue and drawing in the tip slightly more than in the position for *i*:, at the same time hollowing it so as to enlarge the resonance-chamber back of the teeth), and then pronouncing with lips protruded and rounded as for *u*:. Instead of this sound we often hear *i*: in Middle and South Germany, and in parts of the North, especially among the lower classes.

(*b*). This *y*: is written: (1) *ü* before one consonant, as in *hüten*; also in *Rüsche*, the plurals *Bücher*, *Flücht*, *Tücher*; (2) *ü* before more than one consonant in *düster*, *wüst*, and usually in *Müster*, *Rüster*, also in *Rübjen*, and the proper names *Ulzen*, *Uchtrig*; (3) *üh*, as in *Pühhl*, &c.; (4) *ui* in a few proper names, as *Duisburg*; (5) *ɨ* in Greek words (see Note) before one consonant, as in *Ussyl*; (6) *u* in open syllables, sometimes followed by a silent *e*, in words from the French: *Aperçu'*, *Revue'*.

Note. In the more common words and in general in a natural unaffected pronunciation *ɨ* is commonly pronounced *i*:, as in *Synifer*. Many, however, prefer to pronounce *ɨ* as *y*:, as they have become accustomed to this pronunciation in their study of Greek.

2. In unaccented open syllables *ü* and *ɨ* have this same sound, only pronounced a little quicker: *Bureau* (*bý:RO:'*). See 4. 2. B. c. Note.

9. 1. (*a*). *i* (*ī*), the high-front-wide vowel, is pronounced much as *i* in *pin*. It is found only in closed syllables, as in *mit*, *Irtrum*, &c.

(*b*). It is written: (1) usually *i* before two or more consonants: *bitter*; (2) *i* in monosyllabic words which never form open syllables: *bin*, *in*, &c., see 4. 2. B. b; (3) *i* in suffixes, as *ig*, *niā*, *in*, &c.; (4) *i* also in *April'*, *Élique* (*klik'ə*), *Apit'el*, *Zit'her*; (5) *ie* often in *vielleicht*, *Viertel*, *vierzehn*, *vierzig*, *kriegst*, *friegt*, *kriegte*, *gefriegt* (but only in the meaning *to get*); (6) *ɨ* before two or more consonants in native German names, as in *Hyrtl*, and also usually before two or more consonants in foreign words (where, however, many prefer *y*; see 8. 1. b. Note), as in *Agyp'ten*, *Sympathie'*, &c.

2. Unaccented *i* followed by a vowel becomes unsyllabic, i.e. does not form a syllable. According to North German usage it is pronounced *almost* as *j*, and is therefore in this treatise indicated by *j*: *Lilie* (*li:lja*). See also 35. 3. (4).

10. (*a*). *y* (*ü*), the high-front-wide-round vowel, is not heard in English. It is formed by placing the tongue into the position for *i* (or, more accurately, by lowering somewhat the back part of the tongue and drawing in the tip slightly more than in the position for *i*, at the same time hollowing it so as to enlarge the resonance-chamber back of the teeth), and then pronouncing with lips protruded and rounded as for *u*. It is found only in closed syllables,

as in *Hütte*. Instead of this sound we often hear *i* in Middle and South Germany, especially among the lower classes. We also hear *i* in the popular German of the North.

(b). This *y* is written: (1) *ü* before more than one consonant or a double consonant, as in *Fürst*, *Hütte*, &c.; (2) *ü* also before *ch* in *brüchig*, *Rüch*, *Sprüche* (pl. of *Spruch*), and the proper name *Blücher*; (3) *y* before more than one consonant in Greek words, as in *Myrte*, &c., where, however, many pronounce the *y* as *i*, see 8. 1. b, *Note*; (4) *u* in closed syllables in French words, as in *Surtout* (*syrtü*).

11. 1. (a). *e:* (ē), the mid-front-narrow vowel, is much like *a* in *bake*. In English, especially in England, *a* in *bake* is often a diphthong, beginning with *e:*, and running over into a sound approaching to *i:*. Be careful to keep the *e:* a simple vowel.

(b). *e:* is written: (1) *ε* before a vowel or single consonant, also in some foreign words when final: *Theodor*, *Kede*, *Fakſimile*; (2) *ε* also before more than one consonant in certain words: before *rb* in *Beschwerde*, *Erde*, *Herb*, *Herbe*, *Pferd*, *werden*, and in proper names, as in *Verden*, *Werder*; before *rt(h)* in *Schwert*, *Wert*, and in proper names, as in *Kaiserswerth*; also in *erst*, *Bräzel* (also *Bräzel*), *Krebsweib*, *Krebs* (also *krebs*), *nebst*, *fiets*, and in the proper names *Dresden*, *Schweg*, *Schwebt*, *Hedwig* (also *Hedwig*); (3) *ee*, as in *Veet*, *Veere*, &c.; (4) *eh*, as in *Neh*, *Nehde*, &c.; (5) *ey* in *Jockey* (also *Jockei*; cf. 39. 4); (6) *e'* in French words, as in *Café*; (7) *hee* in *Thee*, also now written *Tee*; (8) *er* in some French words, as *Bankier* (*bankje*).

2. In unaccented open non-final syllables, *ε* has the same sound, only pronounced a little quicker: *Œkretär* (*zē:kRē:te:R'*). See 4. 2. B. c. *Note*.

12. 1. (a). *ø* (ō), the mid-front-narrow-round vowel, is not found in English speech. It is formed by placing the tongue into the position for *e:* (or, more accurately, by lowering somewhat the back part of the tongue and drawing in the tip slightly more than in the position for *e:*, at the same time hollowing it, so as to enlarge the resonance-chamber back of the teeth), and then pronouncing with lips protruded and rounded as for *o:*. The lip aperture is thus larger than in *y:*. It is usually found in accented open syllables: *Höh=le*, *Tö=ne*. Instead of this sound we often hear *e:* in Middle and South Germany and in parts of the North, especially among the lower classes.

(b). This *ø* is written: (1) *ö* when final, or before a vowel or a single consonant, as in *Bö*, *Erpö'e*, *tönen*; (2) *ö* also before more than one consonant in *Behörde*, *Börde*, and in proper names in *=förde*, *=vörde*; also in *Börse*, *höchst*, and the three proper names *Lögen*, *Öst(er)reich*, *Wörth*; (3) *öh*, as in *Höhle*, *Höhe*, &c.; (4) *öey* in the Low German proper name *Oeynhausen*; (5) *eu* in words from the French when final or before one consonant, as in *adieu* (*adjö*); (6) *öeu* in French words when final or before one consonant, as in *Boeuf*, &c.

2. In unaccented open non-final syllables *ø* has the same sound, only pronounced a little quicker: *Böotien* (*bö:ö:tsjæn*). See 4. 2. B. c. *Note*.

13. 1. (a). *ε:* (ā), a prolonged *ε* (see 14. a). It sounds very

much like *ei* in *their*. Instead of *ε*: we often hear *e*; and this pronunciation seems to be gaining ground in accordance with the natural tendency in German to make long sounds narrow and short ones wide; see 3. 1. *c*.

(*b*). *ε*: is written: (1) *ä* when final, or before a vowel or a single consonant, as in *Wylä*, *fäen*, *wäre*; also before *ch* in *bräche* (past subj.), *sprache* (past subj.), *Gespräch*; in *gemäß*; before *bt* in the plural *Städte* (also *stetö*); (2) *ä* also before more than one consonant in certain words: before *tsh* in *grätshen*, *hätsheln*, *Kardä'tsche*, *Kartä'tsche*; before *cht* in *nächst*; before *ß* (*ts*) in proper names, as in *Rönniggräb*; frequently in Latin and Greek words, as in *Mischylus*, *Gephä'stus*, &c.; (3) *äh*, as in *mähen*, &c.; (4) *ai* in French words in open syllables, as in *Palais* (*pale:'*); (5) *e* before *r* (not silent *r*, but only when pronounced) in French words, as in *Dessert* (*dese:R'*).

2. *ä* in unaccented, open syllables has the same sound, but is pronounced a little quicker: *plädieren* (*plē:di:'Rən*). See 4. 2. B. *c*. *Note*.

14. (*a*). *ε* (*ě* or *ǎ*), the short mid-front-wide vowel, is the same sound as *e* in *let*. This sound is only found in closed syllables: *fett*, *Hände*, *Billet'* (also *Billet'*), *der* (4. 2. B. *b*.), *Hotel'* (4. 1. *b*).

(*b*). *ε* is written: *e*, as in *Net*; *ä*, as in *hämmern*; *ai* in some French words, as in *Terrain* (*teRey'*, S.G. *teRē:'*).

15. (*a*). *ø* (*ö*), the mid-front-wide-round vowel, is the rounded form of *ε*, produced by placing the tongue in the position for *ε* (or, more accurately, by lowering the back part of the tongue and drawing in the tip slightly more than in the position for *ε*, at the same time hollowing it, so as to enlarge the resonance-chamber back of the teeth), and then pronouncing with lips protruded and rounded as for *o*. Thus the lip aperture is larger than for *y*. Instead of this sound we often hear *ε* in Middle and South Germany and in parts of the North, especially among the lower classes.

(*b*). *ø* is written: (1) *ö* in German words before a double consonant, or two or more consonants, as in *Hölle*, *Hölzer*; (2) *eu* in French words before a double consonant, or two or more consonants, or the combination *ill* or *il*: *Beurre*, *Feuilleton* (*fœjə'tɔŋ'*), *Sauteuil* (*fö:tœi'*).

BACK VOWELS.

16. 1. (*a*). *a*: (*ā*), the long mid-back-wide vowel, is pronounced as *a* in *father*, which, however, must not be rounded (see 3. 1. *b*.) as in the pronunciation of sections of our own country, especially in the South. In Middle and South Germany, and also in parts of the North, it is lowered and rounded.

(*b*). *a*: is written: (1) *a* when final (except in *dä*, *jä*, *nä* in exclamations), or before a vowel or a single consonant, as in *Annä*, *Baal* (*ba:'al*), *haben*; before *ch* in *brach* (adj. and past tense of *brechen*), *Brache*, *Schmach*, *sprach*, *Sprache*, *flach*; before *ch* in *drach* (also *dras*); (2) *o* or before more than one consonant in certain words: before *r* + consonant in *Art*, *Arzt*, *Barth*, *Bart*, *Harz*, *Quarz*, *Start*, *Warze* (also

short), *hart*; also in *Magd*, *Papst*, *Abler*; (3) *aa*, as in *Mal*; (4) *ah*, as in *Mhle*; (5) accented *i* (except when final sound) after *o* in French words, as in *Bouboir* (*bū:dō:a:k'*); (6) *aw* in the English word *Shawl* (*sa:l*), better *Schal*; (7) *ae* in Dutch proper names, as in *Laefen*.

2. (a). *a* (ä) is also like *a* in *father*. It is the same sound as *a*; only shortened, pronounced more sharply. It is heard in accented closed syllables, also in unaccented syllables: *Ball*, *alt*, *an* (4. 2. B. *b*), *Staf'er* (4. 1. *b*); *Papier*, *Edam*, *M'räber*.

(b). It is always written *e* except as the second element of the diphthong *ei* in some French words when it is the final sound, or is unaccented: *Octroi* (*oktrō:a'*), *Toilette* (*tō:alē's*).

17. (a). *o* (ö), the mid-back-wide-round vowel, is somewhat like *o* in *Noah*, as usually heard in American English. The short *o* heard in New England in such words as 'coat,' 'road,' &c., is still nearer the German sound. The German *o* must not be pronounced as *o* in English *not*, which is a low-back vowel, and hence has a lower position of the tongue than the German vowel. Be careful to give it its full sound in final unaccented syllables, and not to slur it as in unaccented syllables in English in such words as *cannon*.

(b). It is written *o*: (1) before a double consonant, or two or more consonants, as in *Groß*, *Sorte*; (2) before a single consonant in *Brombeere*, *Don*, *groß* (in uninfl. form), *Grog*, *Hochzeit*, *Sot*, *Vorbeer*, *von*, *Vorteil*, and in final unaccented syllables, as in *Dof'tor*.

18. 1. (a). *o*:, the mid-back-narrow-round vowel, is like the *o* in *heroic*, as heard in American English, but the lips are more distinctly rounded. In the English of England *ō* is not a simple sound, but a diphthong. The German sound is pure *o*:

(b). It is written: (1) *o* when final or before a single consonant, as in *so*, *Noah*, *Rose*; *o* before *ch* in *hoch*, but short in *Hochzeit*; (2) also *o* before more than one consonant in certain words: before *st* in *Kloster*, *Ostern*, *Trost*, and the name *Zost*; before *bst*, *pst* in *Obst*, *Propst*, also in *Vogt*, *Lotse*, *Mond*; before *rt* (silent *t*) in words from the French, as in *Fort*, *Reffort*; in *Kof's* (or *Coaf's*); (3) *oo*, as in *Boot*, &c.; (4) *oh*, as in *roh*; (5) *oe* in Low German names, as *Soest*; (6) also as *oi* in Low German names, as *Troisdorf*, &c., except *Voitgenburg*, where *oi* is pronounced as *oi*; (7) *ow* in many Low German names and some English nouns: *Bredow*, *Bowle*; (8) *au* in French words, as in *Sauce* (*so:sə*); (9) *eau* in French words, as in *Plateau*; (10) *oa* in English words, as in *Toast* (also *tō:ast'*).

2. In unaccented open non-final syllables it has the same sound, only pronounced a little quicker; see 4. 2. B. *c. Note*.

19. (a). *u* (u), the high-back-wide-round vowel, is like *u* in *put*, but in German *u* the lips are more rounded. It is only found in closed syllables: *bunt*, *Kunst*.

(b). It is written: (1) *u* before a double consonant, or two or more consonants, as in *Mutter*, *Grust*; (2) also *u* before one consonant in *Butter*, *um*, *zum*, and often *zur*, and in Latin suffixes, as in *Metrum*, *Risfuß*; (3) *ou* in French words in closed syllables, as in *Reffource* (*RESUR'sə*).

20. 1. (a). *u:* (ū), the high-back-narrow-round vowel, is much as *oo* in *booby*, as heard in American English spoken in the North. In the English of England *oo* is not a simple sound, but a diphthong.

(b). *u:* is written: (1) *u* when final, or before a single vowel or consonant, as in *du*, *Duo* (but pronounced *u* in *hui*, *pfui*), *Bude*; (2) *u* in the suffixes *tum* and *ut*, as in *Reichtum*, *Armut*; (3) *u* before *ch* in *Buch*, *Buche*, *Fluch*, *Kuchen*, *suchen*, *Luch*, *Wucher*; (4) *u* before a combination of consonants in *Buchſ*, *wuchſ* (both also pronounced *vuks*), *huſten*, *puſten*, *Schuſter*, *Wuſt*, *Geburt*, *Ludwig*, *Truchſeß*, and proper names in *nſ*, *nſ*, as *Kunſ* (also short); (5) *uſ*, as in *Kuſ*, &c.; (6) *ue* in the name *Roſebue*; (7) *ou* before a single consonant or when final in French words, as in *Tour*, *Rendezvous* (*Raydē:vu:*); (8) *oe* in Dutch words, as in *Voer* (more commonly written *Bur*), &c.

2. In unaccented open non-final syllables, *u* has the same sound, only pronounced a little more quickly: *Mulatte* (*mü:lat'a*). See 4.2. B. c. *Note*.

THE MIXED VOWEL *ə* (ə).

21. *ə* (unaccented *ē*), the mid-mixed-narrow vowel, is a sound somewhat like the *a* in *sofa*. It is only found in unaccented syllables, as in *lieben*, *gebe*, *Spin'del*, *beliebt'*; in the enclitics (see 57. B and C) *der*, *deß*, *dem*, *den*, *eß*, &c. In the final unaccented syllables *el*, *em*, *en*, *er*, the *ē* often naturally drops out in ordinary language: *rittn* for *ritten*, &c.

DIPHTHONGS.

22. *ei* is pronounced much as *i* in *mine*. It is written: (1) *ei*, as in *Ei*, *Stein*; (2) *ai*, as in *Mai*; (3) *ey* in proper names, as in *Meyer*; (4) *ay* in proper names, as in *Bayern*; (5) *ij* (*y*) in Dutch names, as in *Jiffel* (*Yffel*).

23. *au* is pronounced much as *ou* in *loud*. It is always written *au*.

Note. In some foreign words *au* represents two vowels each forming a syllable: *Raper'näum*, *Menelä'us*, &c.

24. *eu* is pronounced much as *oy* in *boy*. It is written: (1) *eu*, as in *Heu*, but for exceptions see *Note 2*, below; (2) *äu*, as in *gläubig*, but see *Note 3* for exceptions; (3) *oi* in a few Low German words, as *Boi*, *aſoi*, *Boißenburg*, &c., and the foreign word *Λεσφοίε* (or more commonly *Λεσφοје* *lefko:'jə*); (4) *oy* in Low German names and a few foreign words, as *Hoyerswerda*, *Misdroy*; *Troygewicht*, *Savoy'en*; (5) *ieu* in *Lieutenant* (*loſt'nant*), better *Leutnant*; (6) *ui* in Dutch words, as in *Zuiderſee*.

Note 1. *Eu* and *äu* are variously pronounced in the different dialects.

Note 2. In some words *eu* represents two vowels each forming a syllable: *Λεδε'um*, *Baccalan'reus*, &c.

Note 3. In some foreign words *äu* represents two vowels each forming a syllable: *Zubilä'um*, *Matthä'us*, &c.

NASAL VOWELS.

25. In many of the later loan-words from the French, nasal vowels, which are indicated by a following *m* or *n*, are pronounced as in the

original : *am*, *an*, *em*, *en* = *ā*, i. e. nasal *a* ; *ain*, *ein*, *im*, *in* = *ē* ; *om* and *on* = *ō* ; *um* and *un* = *ū*, when the *m* or *n* is not doubled or followed by a vowel. This pronunciation, however, prevails only in the South and parts of the Midland. In the North *ā*, *ē*, *ō*, *ū*, are quite generally replaced by the nearest native sounds, *aŋ*, *eŋ*, *oŋ*, *uŋ*, i. e. *a*, *e*, *o*, *u* followed by *ŋ* (see 36. b) : *Chance*, *Entree*, *Baffin*, *Ballon*, *Berdun*, *Parfum*, pronounce *ʃaŋ'sə*, *aŋ'tre:*, *baseŋ*, *baloŋ*, *verdoŋ*, *parfoŋ* (more commonly *Parfum* *parfy:m*). In a few thoroughly naturalized words these endings are pronounced as in German : *Bataillon* (*bataljo:n*), *Ballon* (*balko:n* or *balkoŋ*), *Garnison* (*garni:zo:n*), &c.

MUTATION (Umlaut) OF VOWELS.

26. A. Mutation of the Back Vowels. The vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and the diphthong *au*, are modified or mutated, as it may be called, when an *i* or *j* follows in the next syllable, or in the second succeeding syllable : *Stunde*, *kündlich* ; *Mutter*, *mütterlich* ; *Raum*, *räumlich* ; but there are some exceptions, as *gebüßig*, *schüßig*, &c. The cause of mutation cannot usually be seen in the present period of the language, as the *i* or *j* which formerly stood in the following syllable has disappeared or decayed to the form of *e* : *Gäße* (pl. of *Gast*), but O.H.G. *gesti* ; *nähren*, but O.H.G. *nerian*. The mutation of *a* was in earlier times written *ē*, which is in part still preserved : *brennen*, *brannte*, &c. The mutated vowels have in different periods been designated in different ways. In earlier N.H.G. it was common to write an *e* over or alongside of the vowels, but at present the usual sign of mutation is two dots above the vowels, which are the remnants of the *e* of former times. Older usage survives in a few names : *Goethe*, &c. Also sometimes after capitals : *Äe*, *Öe*, *Üe*; usually *Ä*, *Ö*, *Ü*.

The pronunciation of these mutated sounds has been treated above. When the *i* or *j*, which are pronounced in the front part of the mouth, followed the back vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and the diphthong *au*, the result was that the back sounds were modified, the tongue shifting more to the front in unconscious anticipation of the following *i* or *j*.

Note. Mutation is still an active force, but its spread is brought about by quite a different cause. The cause of mutation in former times was the physiological one mentioned above, the present cause of mutation is the psychological one of analogy. Thus certain grammatical groups which from physiological reasons suffered mutation in former periods have so influenced other groups that they too have assumed mutated form. For an example of mutation by analogy see 66. a.

B. A-Mutation. This is also a change of sound in the stem under the influence of the following vowel. The vowels *i* and *u* were in earlier periods changed to *e* and *o* respectively, when an *a*, *e*, or *o* followed in the next syllable. This change is called *a*-mutation from the frequency of the mutation under the influence of a following *a*. The change of *i* to *e*, while not an extensive one, took place in a number of cases. Illustrative examples are given in 198, 1. Division, *d* ; 2. Division, *d* ; 199, 1. Division, *d*. In English the older *i* may still be preserved : *Leber*, but *liver*, &c. The *u* mutated to *o* here quite regularly except before a nasal + consonant, or before *j*. Thus the perf. participle *geholfen* (O.H.G. *giholfan*) has the mutated *e*, while in *gebunden*, perf. participle of *binden*, a word belonging to the same gradation class, the mutation did not take place, as it was hindered by the *nd* following the vowel of the stem. Thus also *fülle* (O.H.G. *fulli*), *füllen* (Gothic *fulljan*), but *voll* (original stem *folia*). Later unmutated *u* became *ü* according to A, above, when an *i* or *j* followed, as in the examples *fülle* and *füll:n*.

C. Mutation of e. The vowel *e* is changed to *i* before a nasal + a consonant, or if an *i*, *j*, or *u* follows in the next syllable. Thus the stem vowel in *binden* is *i*, while in some other verbs belonging to the same class it is *e*,

as in *helsen*. Thus also the *e* of *Erde* has become *i* in *irbisch*, as it is followed by *i*. Thus also *Werk* becomes *wirlich*, &c. Sometimes the force at work can only be seen in its effects, as the following *i* or *u* has become *e*, or has dropped out: *Berg*, but *Gebirge* (O.H.G. *gibirgi*); *recht*, but *Gerecht* (O.H.G. *girihti*); Latin *septem*, but *sieben* (O.H.G. *sibun*). See also 197. C. The different forces at work in these changes are no longer felt, but they have played an important part in shaping the present forms of the language.

D. *Vowel Gradation* (Ablaut). A difference of accent in different forms of the same word developed in early times vowel gradation, that is, a difference of vowel: compare *λείπω*, but *ἐλιπον*. In English vowel gradation often exists, although it is not indicated by the orthography: historian (*histo'rian*), history (*his'tori*). As can be seen from the examples, loss of accent is accompanied by a reduction of the vowel element. This force can now often be seen only in its effects, as the difference of accent has in most part disappeared: *ca'pio*, *acci'pio* (formerly *ac'cipio*, hence reduction of stem vowel). Vowel gradation is now most clearly to be observed in strong verbs, and for practical reasons this subject is discussed under that head; see 197. A.

CONSONANTS.

27. *General Rule*. Unlike vowels, which do not change their quantity and pronunciation from the addition of inflectional endings, consonants may change considerably their sound in certain positions, as noted below (in articles 29–37) under the different consonants: *lesen* to read, *du liest*; *liegen* to lie, *du liegst*; here the *f* and *g* in the different words have different sounds.

THE ASPIRATE *h*.

28. *h* is pronounced like *h* in *hand*, only more forcibly. Only the initial *h* of a stem syllable, be it a simple word, a compound, or a suffix, has this pronunciation: *Halt*, *Anhalt*, *Weisheit*. The *h* is pronounced medially in *Heim* and *Horn*, as they are compounds, or are felt as compounds. The *h* is still sounded in *Wilhelm*, &c., but in some compound names, as *Walther* (now also written *Walter*), *Matilde* (also written *Matilde*), &c., it is silent, as the names are not vividly felt as compounds. The medial *h* is naturally pronounced in the onomatopoeic forms *Uhu*, *Schuhu*, also the exclamations *aha'*, *rho'*. Medial *h* is also pronounced in foreign words: *Zebovah*, *Alkohol*, *Sahara*, *kontrahieren*, &c. In all German words medial and final *h* have elsewhere become silent except in the South-west (especially in Baden, Switzerland, Tyrol), where it can still be heard medially between vowels, as in *hessen*. It must, indeed, have thus been pronounced medially throughout a large part of Germany up to a comparatively recent date, or it would not have come down to us so well preserved here in the orthography. Since the fifteenth century, however, *h* does not possess exclusively an etymological value, as many new unhistorical *h*'s have been inserted merely as a sign to show that the preceding vowel is long. As it often stands where the preceding vowel would be clearly marked as long without its assistance, the new official rules require here its omission in many cases, as *Nat* instead of *Nath*, while in others they incon-

sistently allow it to stand. This inconsistency is easily justified in those cases where the *h* is not a mere sign to show the length of the preceding vowel, but is an etymological part of the stem which has in course of time become silent, although in other words of the same origin the *h* appears in the older form of a pronounced *ch*: *sehen* (pro. *ze:an*) *to see*, but *Sicht* *sight*. The silent *h* has been allowed to stand, especially in words with a stem ending in *l, m, n, r*, where, however, there does not seem to be any good reason for using it: *Ahle*, *rühen*, *föhnen*, *föhren*, &c.

An *h* is in N.G. often pronounced after *p, t, f* (as also in English), although no printed character here represents it; see 29. *a*.

Note. According to its formation *h* is a vowel, differing, however, from other vowels in that it is voiceless. It always has the mouth position of the following vowel. Thus *hu* is a voiceless *u* followed by a voiced *u*, and *ha* is a voiceless *a* followed by a voiced *a*, &c. The one character *h* stands thus, not for one sound, but for a number of different voiceless vowels. *h* is classed here as a consonant because it is invariably used as a consonant and also has the acoustic effect of a consonant, namely, that of a voiceless spirant.

STOPS: voiceless *p, t, f*; voiced *b, d, g*.

29. The voiceless stops *p, t, f* are pronounced much as in English. The voiced stops *b, d, g* are, according to the standard of the stage, pronounced as in English, when they stand at the beginning of a word, or elsewhere before a vowel or voiced consonant, but when final (end of word or syllable) or next to a voiceless consonant they become voiceless *p, t, f*: (voiced) *bieten*, *daß*, *gut*; but final *b, d, g* in *ob*, *Hund*, *Tag*, and *Hedwig* to be pronounced voiceless, as *op*, *hunt*, *ta:k*, and *het:wiç*; also *b, d, g* in *Abt*, [*beß*] *Etß*, *liegt* to be pronounced voiceless, as *apt*, *aits*, *likt*. This change of sound from *b* to *p* and *d* to *t* at the end of a syllable, or next to a voiceless consonant, is well established in the North, but that of *g* to *f* has, although supported by the stage and many scholars, not yet become general usage. The *g* in these positions is in the North still usually a spirant and is pronounced as the voiceless spirants *ç* in *idç* and *aç* (see 32. 3. *a* and *b*). Good usage in the North has, however, decided for the stage pronunciation *g* initially, and there is a tendency to it medially, especially strong in foreign words, but the general pronunciation of medial *g* is still *j* or *g* as described in 34. 3 and 4 and 35. 3 and 4. In the South the *g* in all these positions is pronounced as *k*; see *a*. After the palatal nasal *n*, *g* is usually entirely silent: *fing*, *fingen*; see 36. *b*.

a. In Middle and South Germany *b, d, g* lack voice element, and hence it is often difficult for us to distinguish in these sections between *b* and *p*, *d* and *t*, *g* and *f*. There is sometimes, however, a real difference between M.G. and S.G. voiceless *b, d, g* and *p, t, f*, namely, the explosion of the latter is more sudden and is followed by an *h* sound. Thus a German from Prague pronounces *Du bist ein gutes Kind* as *tu: pist ain ku:tas khint*. North Germans usually pronounce (as we do also in English) the *h* after *p, t, f*, but Middle and South Germans only initially at the most, and some only after initial *f* before vowels, and some do not distinguish at all between *b, d, g* and *p, t, f*. As differing from the above, it should, however, be noted that in M.G. and

in part in S.G. (large part of S.E.) medial *b* between vowels, or after *l* or *r* before a vowel, is pronounced as the voiced *v* spoken in M.G. and S.G.: *Liebe, Farbe*, pro. *li:və, farvə*. In sections of the South-West it is voiceless *v*. In the North the popular pronunciation of *g* is that of a spirant: initially *j, ç, g,* or *x*; medially and finally according to the general usage described above, with the exception that it often becomes voiceless medially in the Midland.

b. In derivatives and compounds these stops are pronounced voiceless if they stand at the end of either component: *Abart (ápart)*. In that case (see 41. 3. *a*), however, where the final stop is carried over to the next syllable, it is pronounced voiced: *be:v:bachten*.

HOW THE STOPS ARE WRITTEN.

30. 1. The *p* sound is written *p* or *pp* (after a short vowel), as in *Paar, Puppe*; *b* finally and also medially before a consonant except sometimes before the suffixes *lein, lich, ling*, where *b* is pronounced *p* or *b*: *ab (ap), ob (op), Abt (apt), Knäblein (kne:p'lain or kne:b'lain)*.

2. The *t* sound is written *t* or *tt* (after a short vowel), as in *Tau, fett*; *th* in German names, as *Goethe*, but Christian names *Herta* rather than *Herttha*, &c.; *th* in many foreign words, as in *Thema, Themse*, &c.; *ð* finally and also medially before a consonant, except sometimes before the suffixes *lein, lich, ling*, where *ð* is pronounced *t* or *d*, as in *Mund (munt), Ludwig (lu:tvic), Kindelein (kintlain or kind-lain)*; *dt* in a few words, as in *Stadt, sandte, keredt*, &c.

3. The *k* sound is written: (1) *f* or *df* (after a short vowel), as in *fahl, dick*; (2) *ch* in a number of words where it is followed by an *i* or *e* which forms a part of the stem, as in *Dach, Dachsen*, but not in (*des*) *Buch, wach=sam*, &c.; (3) *ch* also in many foreign words, as in *Chor*, see 32. 3. *a. Note*. (2); (4) *q* before *u*, as in *Quelle (kvelo)*; (5) in parts of the North, *g* after *n* when final or before voiceless consonant, as in *ging (ginke), bringst (brinkest)*; (6) *g* also elsewhere in a few isolated words, as *flugs, Augsburg, Grog*; (7) *gg* finally, or medially before a consonant, as in *Brigg, flaggt*; (8) *c* in many foreign words, as in *Cognac (kon'jak)*, or now better in German spelling *Kognak*; (9) also *cc* in some foreign words, as in *Accord*, now better in German spelling *Ufford*.

4. The *b* sound is written only *b* or *bb* (after a short vowel): *Bahn, Ebbe*.

5. The *d* sound is written only *d* or *dd* (after a short vowel): *du, Kladde*.

Note. The *b* is silent in a few words from the French: *Fonds (foy), Plafond (plafoy')*, &c.

6. The *g* (voiced stop as in English *g* in *go*) sound is written: (1) *g* initially, as in *gut*; (2) also medially in many foreign words, especially those in which *g* stands before a consonant or an accented vowel, as in *Algraffe, Evangelium*; (3) *gg* medially after a short vowel when followed by a vowel, as in *Blagge*; (4) *gu* before a front vowel in foreign words, as in *Guitar're*, or now better in German spelling *Gitarre*; (5) *gh* in foreign words, as in *Ghibelline, Ghetto* (or *Getto*).

SPIRANTS.

31. Voiceless *f*, *ß* (*f*, *ff*, *ß*), *ç*, *g*, *ſch*; voiced *w*, *f*, *j*, *g*, *r*.

Spirants like stops vary in part in pronunciation according to their position, as will be noted in the following articles.

32. Voiceless spirants—*f*, *ß* (*f*, *ff*, *ß*), *ç*, *g*, *ſch*.

1. *f* is pronounced as *f* in *fine*: *fünf*, &c.

2. *ß* (*s*) sounds nearly like *ss* in *moss*, but is narrower in its tongue articulation, that is, has a somewhat smaller air-channel between the tongue and the teeth-roots, which gives the hiss a higher pitch: *ßauß*, *Çiß*, &c.

3. The spirants *ç* and *g* are not found in English. Their pronunciation depends upon their position:

a. Medially and finally after a front vowel (see **6. a**, above) or any consonant, initially in some foreign words (see *Note*, below), and always in the diminutive suffix *chen*, *ç* has a sound somewhat similar to that of English *y* in *yes* pronounced without voice (see art. **3. 2**), but it is much stronger, the tongue is also brought closer to the front part of the hard palate: *ſtechen*, *içh*, *Verche*, *Chirurg*, *Mädchen*. Also *g* final or before a consonant has the same sound when it follows a front vowel or any consonant: *Steg*, *legt*, *Berg*. The phonetic symbol for this sound is *ç*.

Note. In foreign words *ç* can also form the initial sound of a syllable. Its pronunciation in this position depends in part upon the origin of the word: (1) In Greek words it is pronounced *ç* before a front vowel and sometimes before a consonant: *Chemie*, *Chrie* (*çai'z*), &c. (2) In Greek words before a back vowel and usually also before a consonant it is pronounced *k*: *Charakter*, *Cholera*, *Chor*, *Christ*, &c. (3) In Greek words between vowels *ç* is pronounced as in German words, i.e. *ç* after front vowels and all consonants, and *x* after back vowels: *Mechanik* (*me:ça:'nik*), *Arche*, *Orcheſter* (also *onkes'tæ*), *Hypochondrie* (*hy:põ:xondri'*). (4) In French words it is pronounced *f* initially and medially: *Chica'ne* (now better written *Çhifane*), *Chofola'de* (Span. but with French pronunciation of *ç*; better *Çhofelade*), *Branché*, &c. (5) In English words = *f* (French) or *tʃ* (Eng.): *Chæf* (now *Çhef*), *Chartern*, &c.

b. After back vowels (see **6. b**, above) *ç* becomes a guttural spirant, as in *açh*. It is heard from Scotchmen for *ch* in *loch*. It is formed by raising the back part of the tongue towards the middle of the soft palate, a little higher than in the position for short *u*, and then forcing through this space between the tongue and palate a broad current of air, which produces a rough rasping sound. In a few foreign words *açh* has this same sound: *Backuß*, &c. In North Germany *g* is also thus pronounced, when it stands after a back vowel and is not followed by a vowel: *Tag*, *tagt*. The phonetic symbol for this sound is *x*.

4. *ſch* something like *sh* in *shy*, but in German the lips are protruded more, and the point of the tongue is less raised: *ſcharf*, *Çhiff*, &c. Though usually represented by three letters (*ſch*), this sound is a simple one, the phonetic symbol of which is *f*.

HOW VOICELESS SPIRANTS ARE WRITTEN.

33. 1. The *f* sound is written: (1) *f* or *ff* (after short vowel), as in *Fall*, *Çhiff*, &c.; (2) *v* in a few German words, as in *Water*, *Wetter*,

Gevatter, Behme (better Feme), ver-, Vieh, viel, vier, Blies (Blies), Vogel, Volk, voll, vom, von, vor, vorder, zuvörderst, vorn, Frevell, and in a few proper names, as Vilmar, Birchow, Voss, Vischer, &c.; Havel, Weldecke (town), &c.; (3) *v* finally in all foreign words, as in passiv, medially in Larve, sometimes in brave (Kerle), Nerven, Pulver (often), Sklave, and regularly before a consonant, as in Levoise, initially in Veit, Vers, Vogt, Veilchen; (4) *ph* in foreign words, as in Philosoph, Diphthong, &c.; (5) *pph* in the Greek name Sappho.

2. The *s* sound is written: (1) *ß* at the end of a word, as in Moos; (2) *ſ* medially before consonants, as in Riste, also before vowels if it is preceded by a consonant other than *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*: Erbsen (ERP'sə), but the *ſ* is voiced in Rinsse as it follows *n*; (3) *ß* or *ſ* initially in foreign words before a consonant, as in Skizze, Smaragd, Sene (stse:nə); (4) *ß* initially before a vowel in some nouns from the French, as in Sergeant, Service, which are, however, also pronounced after German fashion with voiced *ſ*; (5) *ff* between vowels when a short vowel, and *ß* when a long vowel precedes, as in Flüsse, Füße; *ß* at the end, or medially before a consonant in all words which require *ff* or *ß* between vowels, as in Fluß, G. Flüßes, Fuß, G. Fußes, müssen, du mußt, stoßen, du stößt; (6) heard as the latter element in the double sound *ts* (written *z*, *ß*, *t* before *i*, *c* before front vowels; see 30. 3) even before vowels, as in Kage, heißen, Patient, aſzetisch (astse:tiʃ, also written aßzetisch or aſcetiſch; or aſſetiſch when pronounced with a *t*); (7) *ç* in words from the French, as in Façon (faʃon'); (8) *c* in some French words, especially before *a*, as in Annonce (anɔŋ'sə); (9) *z* in Bronze (also pronounced with *z*), and in the Spanish words Chimborazo, Cadix, Cortez, but in other Spanish words pronounced as *ts*, as in Alcazar.

3. *ç* is written *ch* in some words and *g* in others, as described in 32. 3. a.

Also *x* is written *ch* in some words and *g* in others; see 32. 3. b.

4. *f* is written: (1) *sch* as in scharf; (2) *ſ* initially before *p* or *t* in all stem syllables: sprechen, stehen, verstehen, Ziegelstein; (3) *ch* in French and other foreign words; see 32. 3. a. Note (4). (5); (4) *sh* in English words, as in Shawl, better Schal; (5) *c* in Italian words, as Cello, Violoncell (vi:ð:lonʃel'); *c* here better = *tʃ* except in Cicerone (tsi:tsəro:nə); (6) *x* in Don Quixote (dɔŋ'kiʃot); (7) contained in *ch* in English words (see 32. 3. a. Note (5)) and also in Guttapercha (gutapɛr'tʃa:, also gutapɛr'ça:); (8) contained in the Slavonic tſch or *ç* (= *tʃ*), as in Tſcheche or Çeche (tʃɛʃə).

a. In foreign words *ſ* before *p* and *t* is usually pronounced as in German words, but in a few cases, especially compounds where the origin of the word is not vividly felt, and hence *sp* or *pt* are not felt as the initial part of a stem syllable, there is some fluctuation in usage: Anſtalt (inʃtɪŋkt' or instɪŋkt'), &c.

b. In Hanover, Holstein, Friesland, and Mecklenburg, initial *ſ* before *p* and *t* is pronounced as voiceless *s* instead of *f*: stain instead of *stain* (Stein).

c. In the Southwest *st*, *sp* are pronounced *st*, *sp* also finally and medially; not only so in dialect, but often also by the educated classes: kunst, byrſt, haſpəl instead of Kunst, Bürſte, Haſpel. In some M.G. dialects *f* is heard for *s* after *r*: bſiſſ instead of Bärſe. In the dialect of Berlin *f* is heard after *r* for *s* and *z*: Durſt (durʃt), Hirſe (hirʃə).

VOICED SPIRANTS—w, f, j, g, i or g (both = ʒ), r.

34. I. w (*v*) is much like *v* in *very*. It is formed with the lips and teeth in much the same way, but is not quite as distinctly buzzed as the English *v*. It is pronounced in South and Middle Germany as *v*, a bilabial sound, pronounced with both lips, somewhat like our English *w*, but with the important exception that it lacks the rounding of the lips and does not raise the tongue to the position of *u* as in English. The S.G. *w* is not accompanied by a buzz as in the North. N.G. *w* is sometimes bilabial after a consonant, or when written *u* after *q*, as in *Schwester*, *zwei*, *Quelle*. It is here more commonly the usual labio-dental (i. e. *v*), which, however, is sometimes almost or quite voiceless.

2. Voiced *s* (ʒ) is pronounced like *s* in *rose*: *senden*, *Stofe*.

a. In all the positions (see **35. 2**) where *f* in N.G. is voiced, it is in S.G. voiceless.

3. *i* (*j*) has much the same sound as *y* in *yes*: *ja*, *jagen*, &c. The articulation is closer in German than in English *y*, and hence in German there is a gentle buzz, caused by the friction of the air in passing through the narrowed space. This friction is more marked in the North than in the South.

4. *g* is a voiced spirant after back vowels, when also followed by a vowel: *wagen*, *nagen*, *ſugen*. The English *g* is here an explodent or stop, but this German sound is a continuant or spirant, the voice continuing and not suddenly stopped as in English. Germans in the South pronounce this *g* as in English, except that it is voiceless. If the *g* of the stage is not given the precedence the spirant *g* is much to be preferred to the voiceless stop, as it is the common pronunciation of North and a large part of Middle Germany. The phonetic symbol for this sound is *g*.

5. *ʒ*, the voiced sound corresponding to voiceless *f*ʃ, not found in German words but in many foreign ones, is somewhat like *s* in *pleasure*: *Journalist*, &c. For spellings see **35. 5**. This sound is replaced in S.G. and M.G. by *f*.

6. German *r*, or rather French *r*, as it was first introduced into the language from the French, has an entirely different sound and is formed differently from the English. German *r* is produced by the uvula, the little fleshy conical body suspended from the middle of the lower border of the soft palate. The uvula is set in vibration by the current of escaping air pushing against it. To form this *r* the root of the tongue must be quite tightly closed in around the uvula, forming a little groove in which it hangs, so that the escaping air must of necessity push it out to pass beyond. The tongue is kept drawn back and remains *motionless*. This *r* is not usually trilled, but is pronounced quite softly, and often passes over into *a* or *ə* in final syllables. On the other hand it is often pronounced as a harsh *ʃ* (as in *aʃ*). There is also another *r* which prevailed in earlier periods of the language and is still heard in certain localities; see **37. 2**.

HOW VOICED SPIRANTS ARE WRITTEN.

35. 1. The *v* sound is usually written: (1) *w*, as in *wöhl*; (2) *f* in a large section of the North when the *f* stands before a vowel of an inflectional ending, in case of nouns and adjectives whose simple stem ends in *f*, as in *(deß) Briefes* (*bri:'vəs*), *steifer* (*stai'vər*), but the *f* sound should be preferred here, as the *v* sound, although supported by historic considerations, is now generally considered dialectic, and does not seem likely to spread; (3) *v* initially and medially in foreign words, as in *Vase*, *Passi'va*, but never when final, as in *passiv* (*pasi:f'*); (4) *v* medially in Low German words, as in *luven*; (5) *u* after *q*, as in *Dual* (*kva:l*); (6) *u* after *f* in *Bißfuit'*; (7) *u* after *g* in *Linguist'*, *Pinguin*, *fangu'niſch*; (8) *u* after *z*, as in *Suade*, *Suite*, &c.

Note. In Middle and South Germany *v* is pronounced throughout as German *v*, i. e. as *f*. Also in the North, familiar words as *Nerven*, *Pulver*, &c., are sometimes pronounced with *f*.

2. The *z* sound is represented in print by the following characters: (1) *f* initially before vowels, as in *ſieben*; (2) *f* also medially before vowels (expressed or understood), when it itself is preceded by a vowel or consonantal vowel (*l, m, n, r*), as in *leiſe*, *weiſ(e)re*, *Pinſe*, pronounced with voiced *f*, but the *f* is voiceless in *Erſe*, *ſchnapſen*, as it is preceded by a consonant other than *l, m, n, r*; (3) *z* initially in Low German and Dutch proper names, as in *Zevenaar*, *Zuiderſee*, also in a few other foreign words, as *Gaze*, *ſazard'*, *Bazar'*, *Bezier'*, &c., now better written *ſazarb*, *Bazar*, *Beſir*.

a. In a final syllable, *e* is often dropped, and the omission expressed by an apostrophe, or left unexpressed. In these cases an *f* before the suppressed vowel is pronounced voiced or voiceless according as the force of the omitted vowel is felt or the consonant is felt as a final one: *blaſe* (2nd person imper.) or *blaſ'* (voiced) or *blaß* (voiceless). If in a contracted word voiced *f* comes to stand before a suffix, it is pronounced and written as a voiceless *ſ*: *ſaſe*, but *ſäſchen*.

b. In all the above positions *f* is voiceless in the South, as can be seen in the rhymes of the poets from this section: *Und wie mit des fernem Donners Getoſe | entſtürzt es brüllend dem finſtern Echoſe* (Schiller).

3. *j* is written: (1) *i* only as initial letter, as in *ja*; (2) *g* medially when followed by a vowel and preceded by a front vowel or by a consonant, as in *Siege*, *Berge*; (3) *g* medially also when followed by *l, m, n, or r* in the stem, but if these consonants do not form a part of the stem, the pronunciation of *g* here is *ç*, as in *regnen* *Re:jnan* (stem *regen*), *Vöglein* *føjla:n* (stem *Vogel*), *möglich* *møjçliç* (stem *mög*); medial *g* in all of the cases given in (2) and (3) is also pronounced *g*; (4) *i* unaccented between a consonant and a vowel, as in *Familie* *fami:'ljə*, *Nation* *natsjo:n'* (the *j* more or less voiceless after the voiceless consonant); (5) *y* in some foreign words, as in *Dante* (*jej'ki:*), *loyal* (*løjal'*), *Royalist'* (*røj:jalist'*); (6) also contained in the combinations *ll*, *ill*, and *gn* in French (and in the last case also Italian) words: *Bouteille* (*bü:tel'jə*), *Dignon* (*minjɔj'*), *Campagne* (*kampan'jə*), see also **39. 5**.

4. There is but one way of writing *g*, namely, *g* after back vowels when followed by a vowel, as in *Wagen*. The pronunciation *g* is also heard here.

5. *ʒ* (voiced *ʃ*) is written: *j* in French words, as in *Journal'*; *g* (before *e* or *i*) in French or Italian words, as in *genieren*, *Logis* (*lō:ʒi:'*); *ge* in French words, as in *Sergeant* (*ʒERʒant'*); *j* or *g* in some English words, as in *Jeſey* (*ey = e:* or *ai*), *Gentleman*, also pronounced *dʒ* (see 39. 4) in accordance with the English, or in S.G. and M.G. *f* or *tf*.

6. The *ʀ* sound is written: *r*, as in *röt*; *rr* after a short vowel, as in *harren*; *rʰ* in German proper names and in Greek words, as in *Rhein*, *Rhapſo'de*; *rʰ* in Greek words, as in *Katarʰ*.

NASALS.

36. *a*. The labial and lingual nasals *m* and *n* are pronounced as English *m* and *n* in *mad* and *nag*: *Maſb*, *ʃand*. They are always written *m*, *n*, or after a short vowel *mm*, *nn*.

b. The palatal nasal *ɲ* is pronounced as *ng* in English *singer*. The character *n* that represents this palatal nasal is the same as the one that represents the lingual *n*, but they can easily be distinguished from each other, as the palatal *n* is always followed by another palatal (*g*, *f*, *c*, *ʃ*): in *ʃand* the lingual nasal, but in *Gang* and *ſinſen* the palatal. Phonetists often indicate the palatal nasal by *ɲ*. The *g* that follows this palatal nasal has become in native German words entirely silent except when final or before *ʃ*, *t*, *ʃt*, where it is pronounced in parts of the North as *k*: *gingen* (*giɲən*), but often in N.G. *ging* (*giɲk*), *längs* (*lɛ:ɲks*), *bringt* (*brɪɲkt*), *Angſt* (*aɲkſt*). Provincially the *g* that follows *ɲ* is pronounced *g* in the North when followed by a vowel: *des Ganges* (*gay'gəs* instead of *gay'əs*). In M.G. and S.G., prevailing in N.G., and also upon the stage, the *g* after *ɲ* is *always* silent. Be careful in speaking German not to follow the English practice of pronouncing the *g* after this palatal nasal when the *g* is followed by the vowel *e*: say *ſing=er* (*ſiɲ=ər*, not *ſiɲ=gər*). In foreign words, however, the *g* is usually pronounced: *Ganges* (river), lingual. The *n* at the end of a prefix does not in a choice pronunciation become *ɲ* before *f* or *g*: *anſommen* (*an'komən*), *angreifen* (*an'graiɲən*).

c. *ɲ* is written: (1) usually *ng*, as in *ſingen*; (2) *n* in native words before *f* or *ʃ*, as in *winſen*, *Binſte* (name); (3) *n* medially and finally before *c*, *g*, *f*, *q* in foreign words, as in *Salamanca* (*ʒalamay'ka:*), *Albalonga* (*albalɔɲ'ga:*), &c. However, in the Latin and Greek prefixes *en*, *in*, *ʃon*, *ſyn* the *n* is also pronounced *n*: *enſlitʃ* (*ɛɲkli:'tiʃ* or *ɛnkli:'tiʃ*), *Inquiſition'*, &c.; (4) *n* or *m* in French words in the combinations *an* or *en*, *in*, *on*, *un* or *um*, &c.; see 25; (5) *g* before *n* in foreign words, however, only in foreign words other than French and Italian, as in *Agneſ* (*aɲ'nəs*), *Signal* (*ziɲ'na:l'*). Instead of the *ɲ* sound, *x* and *ç* are often heard here: *ax'nəs*, *ziç'na:l'*. In French and Italian words *gn* is pronounced *ɲj*, as in *Champagn'er*, *Campagn'a*.

LIQUIDS.

37. The liquids *l* and *r* are sounds differing somewhat from the English *l* and *r*.

1. In forming German *l* the back part of the tongue is not raised

as in making English l, but is lowered, while the front part of the tongue assumes a convex form, so that the space between its surface and the roof of the mouth is more narrow than in the position for English l, and hence the resultant sound is clearer and lighter.

2. The old r (*r*) is pronounced with the tip of the tongue with a distinct trill. It is now, on the one hand, confined to provinces and small towns, or, on the other hand, elevated to use upon the stage on account of its forcible sound. It is disappearing despite its adoption by the stage and certain enthusiasts. The more common r is the uvular; see 34. 6.

GLOTTAL STOP.

38. There is in German a consonant that is not represented by any sign in the written language, namely, the glottal stop. Phonetists represent this sound by ʔ. It resembles a very faint cough. The glottis is closed and then suddenly opened, the air thus escaping with a slight explosion. It is usually found before all strongly accented initial vowels, but is not found at all in some sections, especially in the South. Thus Germans who speak the glottal stop do not run words together, as we often do in those cases where a word ending in a consonant precedes one beginning with a vowel, since there is really in the German a consonant between the words. Thus we say *notatall*, but the Germans say *ein ʔAlpel*. This glottal stop is most clearly perceptible in strongly accented syllables, and hence often entirely disappears in rapid conversation in words beginning with an unaccented syllable and in enclitics, also in general in singing: *allein'* but *ʔal'le*, *wenn er* (= *wen'ner*), *muß es*, &c. As a rule it is heard in the second element of compounds, if that element begins with a vowel: *Winderʔeile*. It is not, however, heard in the second element of the following classes of compounds, as the separate elements are not distinctly felt and thus blend together: (1) in compound particles, as *herein*, *davon*, &c.; (2) in *Wacht*, *beobachten*, *einander*, *vollenden*, &c.; (3) in foreign compounds, as *Synode*, *Interesse*, &c.

The glottal stop is not especially indicated in this treatise.

CONSONANTAL COMBINATIONS.

39. The following consonantal combinations are discussed here, as they may present some difficulties.

1. *pf* represents a compound of the simple sounds *p* and *f*, the *p* passing over into *f* before the closure is completed. The phonetists and grammarians still hold to this compound, but the people in a large part of the North and Midland pronounce only *f*, especially in the initial position: *ʃerd* (*fe:rt*) instead of *Pʃerd* (*pʃe:rt*), &c.

2. *x* represents a compound of the two simple consonants *f* and *s*. *ks* is written: (1) *x*, as in *Art*; (2) *chʃ* and *chʃ*, as in *Dchʃ*, *Dchʃen*; (3) *fʃ*, as in (*reʃ*) *Werʃ*; (4) *ʃ* or *fʃ*, as in *fleʃʃen*, *fleʃʃ*; (5) *gʃ*, as in *flugʃ*, *Tagʃt* (*Tart*), *Mugʃburg*.

3. *ʒ* represents a compound of the simple consonants *t* and *ʃ*. *ts* is written: (1) *ʒ* initially, or elsewhere after a long or half long vowel, as in *ʒehn*, *ʒugen*, *inspizieren* (*inʃpi:tsi:ʀən*); (2) *ʒ* after a long vowel in a few proper names, as *Grāʒ* (now usually *Graz*), &c.; (3) *ʒ* regularly after a short vowel, as in *Kaʒe*; (4) *tʃ*, *tʃs*, as in *Rätsel*, (*deʃ*) *Hochmuts*; (5) *ttʃ*, as in (*deʃ*) *Tritts*; (6) *dtʃ*, as in *Bodenstedts* (gen. of a proper name); (7) *thʃ*, as in *Freiligraths* (gen. of a proper name); (8) *dʃ*, as in (*deʃ*) *Bads*; (9) *c* or often better *ʒ* in foreign words before front vowels, as in *Accent'* or *Aksent* (*akisent'*); (10) *t* before an *i* that stands before a vowel, as in *Patient* (*patsjent'*), but not in French words where *ie=i:*, as in *Partie* (*parti:*); (11) *ʒʒ* in words from the Italian: *Grandezʒa*, *Skizze*, &c.

4. The compound sound *dʒ*, which is like *g* in *gentleman*, is represented in print by *j* or *g* in words taken from the English: *ʒoke* (*dʒoke:*), *Gentleman*. However, these letters are often pronounced as *ʒ* (34. 5): *ʒoke:* or *ʒokaɪ*. See also 35. 5.

5. In the popular language of the North *ʃ* after *i*, and *ʃl* and *ʃll* after another vowel not initial, are pronounced *lj* medially and *lʃ* in the final position in all words taken from the French: *Billet* (*biljet'*), *Médaille* (*mē:daɪljə*), *Fauteuil* (*fō:tœlʃ'*). The pronunciation of the medial *lj* has become established also in the language of the educated in a number of common words, as *Médaille'*, *Bouillon'*, *Reveil'*, *Billet'*, *Postillon'*, &c., but the final *lʃ* finds little favor. Aside from the list just mentioned, educated people prefer to pronounce these sounds more in accordance with the French, *j* in the medial, *i* (as the second element in the diphthong *ai*) in the final position: *Feuilleton* (*fœjəltɔŋ'*), *Fauteuil* (*fō:tœi'*), *Détail* (*dē:tai'*), &c.

6. In French and Italian words *gn* is pronounced *nj*: *Champagner* (*ʃampan'jəʀ*), *Campagne*, &c. For *gn* in other foreign words see 30. c. (5).

7. *qu* is pronounced in the North more commonly *kv* than *kʷ* (see 34. 1), both in German and foreign words: *Quelle* (*kvel'ə*), *Quadrat* (*kʷä:dra:t'*), &c. In a number of words from the French, however, *qu* is pronounced *k*: *Quarantäne* (*karante:nə*), *Queue* (*kø:*), *Bouquet* or better *Bufett'*, *Marquis* (*marki:*), *Marquisse*, &c. These words are still felt as French words and follow more or less closely the French pronunciation, but in case of older loan-words the pronunciation has become German, as in *Quitt* (*kviit*).

BRIEF HISTORY OF GERMAN CONSONANTS.

THEIR RELATION TO THOSE OF OTHER LANGUAGES.

40. 1. Consonants form in every language the strong enduring trunks of linguistic growth, and thus remain tolerably constant throughout the centuries, both in the original language and in related tongues, also in words which have passed from one people to another. Thus the consonants in German and English are much the same. Although consonants in general have thus

not changed radically their nature as have vowels, a number of them have nevertheless a clearly marked development, which furnishes important data for determining the relation of languages to each other. There are three distinct periods of development. The first period, which represents the original order of things, is found in a large measure preserved in Latin, Greek, and other older languages, and their modern forms such as modern Greek, Italian, French, Russian, &c. The second period appears in Gothic, Scandinavian, Low German, and hence also in English, which in its original stock of words is Low German. This first change, or shifting, took place in prehistoric Germanic. The third period appears in High German. This second shifting began in the fifth, and is clearly marked in the seventh century. It did not, however, take place with the same completeness in the different dialects, the shifting in the case of certain consonants being defective or entirely wanting in large sections of the country. After the second great shift had taken place certain other consonants manifested in certain parts of the country new peculiarities. These new sounds spread to other sections, while, on the other hand, certain districts preserved faithfully the older forms. At the present there is a great variety of dialects in the German-speaking territory, differing in grammatical form and phonetical elements, but in the midst of them all the literary language flourishes, drawing from them strength and beauty. It would greatly impoverish this language if all the purely dialectic words which have been embodied in it should be withdrawn.

A brief history of the more difficult and characteristic consonantal changes and their relations to the different dialects and kindred languages is here given in the hope that it may prove helpful to the student in increasing his appreciation of the language.

a. Where we have in the parent language (Indo-European) bh, dh, gh, which in Latin and Greek developed into f (in Latin also b), th (θ in Greek, but f, d, or b in Latin), χ (in Greek χ; in Latin h or g), we have in Gothic, Low German and English b (in English, however, appearing as b initially, v medially, and f finally), d, g (in English also written w, y, i, medially or finally), and in High German b, t (sometimes written th), g. In passing from the second to the third period, bb (now written b in English) and gg (often appearing as dg in English) usually become pp, ff.

Examples:

First Period, Latin and Greek.	Second Period, English (First Shifting).	Third Period, German (Second Shifting).
<i>frater, lubet</i>	<i>brother, love, grave,</i>	<i>Bruder, lieben, graben,</i>
	<i>calf, rib (O.E. ribb)</i>	<i>Kalb, Rippe.</i>
<i>θύρα, fores</i>	<i>door</i>	<i>Tür (Thür).</i>
<i>χórtos, hortus; στείχω,</i>	<i>garden; to sty or stey;</i>	<i>Garten, steigen;</i>
<i>ve-stigium; vecho,</i>	<i>way (O.E. weg), borrow,</i>	<i>Weg, borgen,</i>
	<i>hail; wedge.</i>	<i>Hagel, Weck.</i>

Note 1. We often find in literary German bb, gg instead of pp, ff: *Krabbe* (Eng. crab), *flügge* (Eng. fledge). Such words have been borrowed from the Low German, which in general has much influenced the literary language.

Note 2. Within the third period the t that had developed from Germanic d became voiced after nasals, and thus regained its former sound: (O.H.G.) *bintan*, hunt, &c.; (N.H.G.) *binden*, *Hund*, &c. In a few words, however, the t remained: *hinter*, *hinten*, *unter*, *unten*, *munter*, also in the conjugation of verbs, as *nannte*, *fonnte*, &c., after the analogy of *liebte*, &c.

Note 3. The characters b, d, g do not represent the same sounds in different periods and different parts of the same territory. At the commencement of the first shifting they were voiced spirants, and later developed quite generally into stops in S.G. In English they became stops initially, and d also elsewhere (for exception see Note 4), and also g sometimes elsewhere, especially after a nasal and in a number of cases

when doubled : guest, longer, wag (O.E. *waggian). In N.G. and M.G., however, *g* is still in most positions a spirant. For full explanation see 29 and also *a* thereunder. Also in English, *g* remained a spirant medially and finally. Later it developed into a *w*, *y*, or *i*, and still later after variously influencing the preceding vowel became entirely silent : borgian (O.E.), borrow (N.E.) ; weg (O.E.), way (N.E.) ; hagol (O.E.), hail (N.E.). In M.G. and a part of S.G., also medial *b* has remained a spirant, as explained in 29. *a*. In English we have the survivals of Germanic spirant *b* in medial *v* and final *f*, as calves, calf. For another group of *b*'s, *d*'s, *g*'s which has joined this one, and had the same development, see 2. *a*, below.

Note 4. In a number of English words, Germanic *d* (including the *d*'s which resulted from *th* in accordance with Verner's Law ; see 2. *a*, below) has in comparatively recent times developed into a voiced *th* before (e)r, and found a corresponding expression in the orthography : father (O.E. fæder), Vater ; mother (O.E. módor), Mutter ; weather, Wetter, &c.

b. Where in Greek and Latin we have the voiceless stops *p*, *t*, *k* (*c*, *q*), we find in Gothic, Low German, and English the voiceless spirants *f*, *th* (*d* in modern L.G.), *h* (in English also written *gh*), and in High German *f*, *b*, *h* (*ch*). The character *h* does not represent the same sound in the different periods. Early in the second period, immediately after the first shifting, it was pronounced as *ch*. Even as early as the Gothic period it had become *h*, at least initially. It is in the German of our time always pronounced as *h* initially, and elsewhere is silent, except when final or before a *t*, where the older pronunciation is still sometimes preserved, and is indicated by the character *ch* : *heher*, but *hœch* ; *sehen*, but *Gesicht*. Also in English, *h* has become *h* initially, elsewhere it has disappeared, or is represented by *gh*, which is now silent or pronounced as *f*.

The various changes of *p*, *t*, *k* (*c*, *q*) in the different periods are illustrated by the following examples :

First Period, Latin.	Second Period, English (First Shifting).	Third Period, German (Second Shifting).
<i>pes</i>	<i>foot</i>	<i>Fuß</i>
<i>tres</i>	<i>three</i>	<i>drei</i>
<i>cor</i> , <i>sequor</i> (ἐπω ; see 2. <i>b</i> , below)	<i>heart</i> , <i>sight</i> and <i>see</i> , <i>high</i> , <i>rough</i>	<i>Serz</i> , <i>Gesicht</i> and <i>sehen</i> , <i>hoch</i> , <i>rauh</i> .

Note 1. The sounds *p*, *t*, *k* did not shift in the combinations *sp*, *st*, *sk*, *ft*, *ht* (*cht*), but remained here unchanged throughout the two shiftings : *spuo* (L.), *spew* (E.), *speien* (G.) ; *hostis* (L.), *gasts* (Gothic), *guest* (E.), *Gast* (G.) ; *piscis* (L.), *fisc* (O.E.), *fisc* (O.H.G.). Later *sk* developed into *f* (written *sh* in English, *sch* in German) : *fisc* (O.E.), but *fish* (N.E.) ; *fisc* (O.H.G.), but *Fisch* (N.H.G.). For the change of sound in case of *f* in *sp* and *ft* in initial position see 2. *g*, below.

As will be seen from the above examples, the combinations *sp*, *st*, *sk* existed in the first period and survived two shiftings. The Germanic combinations *ft* and *ht*, however, resulted from Indo-European *pt* and *kt*, the first sound in each combination shifting regularly in the first shifting, the second sound remaining unchanged. The resulting *ft* and *ht* (*cht*) have since remained intact with the exception that the *h* (*ch*) in *ht* has become silent in modern English : *captus* (L.), *hæft* (O.E.), (*bie*) *chaft* (G.) ; *octo* (L.), *cahta* (O.E.), *eight* (N.E.), *aht* (G.).

The *ft*'s and *ht*'s have been increased from another source. In Germanic before a *t* all labials appear as *f*, and gutturals as *h* (= *ch*) : *give*, *gift* ; *geben*, *Gift* ; *may* (O.E. *mæg*), *might* (O.E. *miht*) ; *mügen*, *Maht* ; *think*, *thought* (O.E. *sohte*) ; *denken*, *dachte*. This movement began in pre-Germanic, and is so complicated that it cannot be explained here.

Note 2. In the earliest history of English, Germanic *th* developed into *d* after *l*, so that we here find *d* in both English and German : *wild*, *wild* ; *gold*, *Gold* ; *needle*, *Nadel*, &c.

While Germanic *th* developed into German *b*, Germanic *thth* became *tt* : *the*, *ber* ; *lath* (M.E. *laffe*), *Ratte* ; *moth* (O.E. *moppe*), *Motte* ; *feather*, *Fittich* (O.H.G. *fethdhah*).

Note 3. Indo-European *p*, *t*, *k* have been seemingly preserved in Germanic where they stood before an accented syllable with initial *n*. The Indo-European *p*, *t*, *k* became, according to rule, *f*, *th*, *h* (*ch*), which according to Verner's Law (see 2. *a*,

below) developed into b, d, g, as the preceding vowel was unaccented. By assimilation the bn, dn, gn became bb, dd, gg. Simple b, d, g were spirants, but bb, dd, gg developed into stops, and later became voiceless pp, tt, ck, perhaps at the same time that Indo-European b, d, g became p, t, k, as described in c below. In the second shifting pp, tt, ck became, according to c, below, pf, þ, ð, so that in case of k there is no difference of sound in the three periods: *duco* (L.), *tuck* (Eng.), *zucken*. Related words will have different sounds here, according as the p, t, k were originally simple sounds or were followed by an accented n: *tie* (O.E. *tīgan*, the regular h having developed into g according to Verner's Law) and *tuck*; *zog* (*ziehen*), *zucken*.

c. Where in Greek and Latin we find the voiced stops b, d, g, we find in Gothic, Low German, and English p, t, k (c, q, in English also ch, tch), and in High German two different groups, according to their position in the word — pf, ð, f, on the one hand, and f, θ (ff, þ), ð on the other. In passing from the second to the third period, p became pf initially, also after m, and when derived from pp, but elsewhere f; t became ð (þ) initially, also after a consonant, and when derived from tt, but elsewhere became θ, ff, or þ; k became ð only medially and finally after a vowel, elsewhere remaining f; kk (now written ck), however, did not shift in any position. These changes may be illustrated by the following examples:

First Period, Latin.	Second Period, English (First Shifting).	Third Period, German (Second Shifting).
b (rare)	(1) <i>pool</i> , (2) <i>stump</i> , (3)	(1) <i>Wuþ</i> , (2) <i>Stump</i> , (3) <i>hüpfen</i> , (4) <i>Leßze</i> , (5)
labium (corresponding to 4)	<i>hypfen</i> (Middle Eng.; now prov. Eng. <i>hip</i> = <i>hop</i>), (4) <i>lip</i> , (5) <i>deeph</i> , (6) <i>help</i>	<i>tief</i> , (6) <i>helfen</i> .
<i>decem</i> , <i>cor</i> (<i>cordis</i>)	<i>ten</i> , <i>heart</i> , <i>sittan</i> (O.E.; now <i>sit</i>), <i>eat</i> , <i>it</i>	<i>zehn</i> , <i>Herz</i> , <i>sitzen</i> , <i>essen</i> , <i>es</i> .
<i>jugum</i> , <i>φώγειν</i>	<i>yoke</i> , <i>bake</i> , <i>cold</i> , <i>drink</i> , <i>milk</i> , <i>lick</i> (<i>Note 4</i>); <i>bench</i> , <i>stretch</i>	<i>Zoch</i> , <i>bachen</i> or <i>backen</i> (<i>Note 5</i>), <i>kalt</i> , <i>trinken</i> , <i>melken</i> , <i>lecken</i> ; <i>Bank</i> , <i>strecken</i> .

Note 1. As Germanic p became either pf or f, we would not expect to find any p's in German except those that came from Germanic bb and sp according to a and b (*Note 1*), above, but in fact we find a considerable number of other p's and pp's. They are not exceptions to the rule, but are loan-words in large part from the Low German: *piden*, *puffen*, *Pumpe*, *humpeln*, *Knüppel*, &c. Also from other languages: *Paß* (L.), *Parade* (Fr.), &c. There is another list of words containing p from another source. As explained in 20. a, South Germans pronounce b as an unaspirated p. In earlier periods, when the orthography conformed more closely to the spoken language without regard for historical considerations, these South Germans often wrote p instead of the historical b. They also introduced into the language many foreign words in which the original b's appeared as p's. A number of these remained: *Banier* (Fr. *bannière*), *Beßel* (M.L. *bidellus*), *Böfal* (Ital. *boccale*), &c. On the other hand, these same South Germans had lost their original aspirated p through its shifting to pf and f, and they were no longer familiar with this sound. They had difficulty in reproducing and representing the aspirated p's of other languages. Thus p appears in a number of words as b, the character often used by South Germans interchangeably with p as the designation of their own unaspirated p, for this was the nearest sound and most appropriate character available in their language and alphabet: *Bims* (L. *pumex*), &c.

Note 2. Tt (or t) before (e)r (older r) did not shift in the change from the second to the third period: *baitrs* (Gothic), *bitter* (Eng.), *bitter* (G.); *wintrus* (Gothic), *winter* (Eng.), *Winter* (G.); *otter* (Eng.), *Otter* (G.); *true* (Eng.), *treu* (G.).

Note 3. The student might naturally think there would be no double t's in German aside from those in the words given in *Note 2*, as the others shifted to þ. There are, however, a number of tt's, not exceptions to the rule but mere orthographical forms. At the beginning of the N.H.G. period all simple consonantal sounds except x, f, y were written with a double character after a short vowel. Hence in this way Germanic d often became tt in H.G.: *sled*, *ſchlitten*; *stead*, *ſtatt*, &c.

Note 4. English *lick* and German *lecken* are related to Latin *lingere* and Greek *λείχαιν* *to lick*, and it would seem at the first glance that Latin *g* and Greek *χ*, which came from Indo-European *gh* (see *a*, above), belonged to group *a*, and that *ck* of the English and German words belonged here. An intermediate change, however, is hidden from view. From the Greek and Latin words we see that the original word actually belonged to group *a*, and the Gothic *laigōn to lick*, which is the corresponding Germanic form of the second period, confirms this view. The Germanic stem *lig-*, however, had another form, *lign-*, which was formed by adding the accented suffix *n*. Later this form became *ligg-* by assimilation. Double *b*, *d*, *g* did not remain spirant *b*, *d*, *g* throughout the early Germanic period as did the simple sounds, but developed along with the *bb*, *dd*, *gg* described in *b. Note 3*, above, and the original Indo-European voiced stops *b*, *d*, *g* into voiceless stops, i. e. *pp*, *tt*, *kk* (*ck*). In this way **liggōn* became *lecken*, and passed out of the group *a* and joined the words in this group (*c*), which had developed a *k* out of Indo-European *g*.

Note 5. As the simple and double sounds had a different development, we find different consonants in related words or related languages, according as the sounds were simple or double: *wachen*, *wefen*; *bake*, *batch*; *baſen* (early N.H.G. and still in S.G.; see 203. 1), *baſen* (literary word).

2. The above consonantal changes, the main points of which were discovered and made known to the world by Jacob Grimm in 1822, have been sketched only in their roughest outlines. There are many exceptions and also additional changes. Attention is here called to a few of the more important:

a. Verner's Law. In 1877 the Danish scholar, K. Verner, discovered that the cause of the deviation of a certain group of words from the laws given in the preceding articles lay in a difference of accent in the prehistoric period, when the accent must have been in general the same as that originally found in the Indo-European family of languages and still preserved in part in Sanskrit and Greek. In this prehistoric period, as can be later seen in Gothic and less perfectly in Old English and other Germanic languages, the voiceless consonants *f*, *th* (pronounced as in English), *h* (= *ſ*), *s*, remained voiceless only initially and after an accented vowel, but after an unaccented vowel became voiced *b*, *d*, *g*, *z*: *klep'tō* (Greek), *hlifan* (Gothic) *to steal*, but *hepta'* (Greek), *siſun* (Gothic) *seven*; *fra'ter* (Latin), *brōthar* (Gothic), but *paſēr* (Greek), *fadar* (Gothic) *father*; *de'cem* (Latin), *taikun* (Gothic) *ten*, but *deku'* (pre-Germanic), *tigrus* (Gothic) *decade*; *quis* (Latin) *some one or other*, *hwazuh* (Gothic) *any one at all, every one*. English should also in general show the same consonants here as the Gothic, but in the course of their development *b*, *d*, *g* have changed considerably or disappeared altogether, as described for the *b*'s, *d*'s, *g*'s in 1. *a*, above, and also *Notes 3* and *4* thereunder, for both of these groups which had come from originally quite different sources had merged into one in prehistoric Germanic. From then on, the *b*'s, *d*'s, *g*'s from both of these sources had the same development. Germanic *z* became *r* in English, and all the other members of the German family before the period of the second shifting: Eng. *was*, *were*.

After the second shifting of the consonants had taken place in High German, the *b*, *d*, *g*, which resulted from *f*, *th*, *h* (*ſ*) according to Verner's Law, appear as *b*, *t*, *g*, while the *f*, *th*, *h* (*ſ*) which followed the accented vowel appear as *f*, *þ*, *h* (*ſ*). Germanic *z* had already become *r* previous to this shifting, while Germanic *s* remained *s*. Hence different consonants may still be found in the different grammatical forms of the same word or in related words, owing to the original difference of accent. Thus we find an occasional change of *f* to *b*, *þ* to *t*, *h* to *g*, *ſ* to *r*: *hof* and *hübſch*, *ſchneiden* and *ſchnitt*, *ziehen* and *zog*, *zehn* and *zwanzig*, *Freſt* and *frieren*. The English consonants here as elsewhere did not participate in the second shift. Low German differing from English suffered also the change of *th* to *d*, but the change took place much later than in High German.

b. The labialized gutturals *g^{vh}*, *k^v*, *g^v* of the parent Indo-European language shifted irregularly in different languages, although they in general

followed the laws described in the preceding articles. They consisted of a guttural and a labial element. In the course of their development they lost sometimes one of these elements, sometimes another, and were otherwise variously affected. The following table presents a general view of these changes:

I.-E. gʰh	Gr. φ, θ, χ	Lat. f, gu, v, g	Germanic gw, g, w; b.
„ kʰ	„ π, τ, κ	„ qu, c	„ hw, h, gw, g, w; f, b.
„ gʰ	„ β, δ, γ	„ gu, v, g	„ q (kw), k (c); p.

The Germanic g's in the second line are the result of the operation of Verner's Law (see *a*, above) and hence once followed an unaccented vowel. Also the change here from f to b shows the effects of the same law. Only a few examples can be given here: *angustus* (L.), *aggwus* (Goth.), *eng* (G.); *τίς*, *quis* (L.), *who* (Eng.), *wer* (G.); *λείπω*, *linquo* (L.), *leihwan* (Goth.), *loan* (Eng.), *leihen* (G.); *tranquillus* (L.), *hweila* (Goth.), *while* (Eng.), *Weile* (G.); *πέντε*, *quinque* (L. for **pinque*), *five* (Eng.), *fünf* (G.); *βίος* *life*, *vivus* (L.), *quick* (Eng.), *Quackfalter* (G.), *erquiden* (G.). It will be seen by a glance at the table that it does not contain consonants that were usually affected by the second shifting, so that in general we find the Germanic consonants still surviving in both English and German. In the individual life of the two languages, however, these consonants have here developed somewhat differently, as can be seen by the examples.

c. Germanic *thw* has developed peculiarly. It went over regularly into *dw* in O.H.G., and later in M.H.G. developed into *tw*, and still later in that period into *zw*: *thwingan* (Old Saxon), *dwingan* (O.H.G.), *twingen* (M.H.G.), *zwingen* (late M.H.G. and N.H.G.), *twinge* (N.E.).

Germanic *dw* has had a similar development: *dwarf* (Eng.), *twerg* (O.H.G.), *twerc* (M.H.G.), *zwerg* (N.H.G.).

High German *tw*, whether derived from Germanic *thw* or *dw*, has developed into *zw* or *qu*. A number of words fluctuate between the two forms, and in other cases independent differentiated forms have become established: *zwerg* (literary German), *Querg* (E.M.G.); *zwängen* to force, squeeze, *quengeln* to find fault with, stick at trifles; *zwergfells* diaphragm, *quer* across.

d. In the M.H.G. period, *m* in an unaccented syllable developed into *n*: *Dusen* *bosom*, *Faten* *fathom*, &c.

e. In the literary language *n* has disappeared in the combination *ing* in those words the stems of which ended in an *n*: *König* for older *Kōning*, &c. The form *Wiening* was still in limited use in the classical period.

In dialect final *n* has disappeared in large parts of the Midland and South, especially in unaccented syllables. Occasionally such forms appear in books which reflect colloquial usage: *Fräulein*, wie gefällt es *Ihne* (for *Ihnen*) denn in *Uwaben*? (Raabe's *Pechlin*, chap. 12).

The opposite tendency, the insertion of an *n*, appears occasionally in the literary language as well as in dialect: *genung* (Goethe, Schiller, &c.) for *genug*, &c.

Notice that the *m* and *n* which preceded Germanic *f*, *th*, *s* have disappeared in English, while they still remain in German in the form of *n*: soft (O.E. *sōfte*), but *sanft* (O.H.G. *semfti* adj., *samfto* adv.); other, but *auber*; tooth, but *Zahn* (O.H.G. *zand* and *zan*); goose, but *Gans*; us, but *uns*; &c.

f. The older tongue *r* has been replaced by a uvular sound; see 34. 6 and 37. 2.

g. The *s* (*s*) of earlier times has within the present period become *ʃ* (= *ʃh*) initially before *l*, *m*, *n*, *w*, *p*, *t*. The present orthography reflects this change of sound in case of *ʃhl*, *ʃhm*, *ʃhn*, *ʃhw*, but not in case of initial *ʃp* (= *ʃp*) and *ʃt* (= *ʃt*): *schl* (O.H.G.), but *ʃhleht* (N.H.G.); *smuz* (O.H.G.), but *ʃmuzz* (N.H.G.); *sprehhan* (O.H.G.) and *ʃprehhen* (N.H.G.). The beginning of this

change cannot be accurately assigned to any definite time. It was a gradual development. It began in the South and then spread. The orthography was slow to recognize these changes. As late as the sixteenth century we still find instances of *f*, *fm*, &c., even in the South. This movement has not yet come to a close, for *sp* and *st* are still pronounced *ʃp* and *ʃt* in Hanover, Holstein, Friesland, and Mecklenburg, and the general pronunciation *ʃp* and *ʃt* has not yet found expression in the orthography.

Medial and final *s* became *ʃ* in a number of cases after *r*: *Burfche* (M.H.G. *burse*), *herrschen* (M.H.G. *hērsen*), &c., but *Durſt*, *ſerſe*, &c. In dialect the *ʃ* sound has spread further still; see 33. 4. c.

The old voiceless *s* has also elsewhere changed its character. It has become voiced in the North in certain positions. In 35. 2 the exact statement with regard to the present voiced sound is given. The old pronunciation of *s* only remains in the cases stated in 33. 2.

h. Foreign words of course form exceptions to the general rules for the development of German consonants and their relation to kindred languages. Recently adopted loan-words usually have the same form as they have in the language from which they were taken, sometimes, however, conforming to German orthography: *Chausſee* (Fr. *chaussée*), *Fabrik* (Fr. *fabrique*), &c. The older the words the more of course they have changed and taken on German form. If the words were borrowed before the period of the second shifting they developed in the same manner as German words: *Pflaume* (L. *prūnum*), *Kelch* (O.H.G. *kelich*, from the L. *calicem*), *Kerſer* (from L. *carcerem*; *Karzer*, derived from the same word, was introduced into the language later by those acquainted with the form of the Latin but employing the modern pronunciation of it), *Kreuz* (from the L. *crucem*; a later introduction than *Kerſer*, as can be seen by the modern pronunciation of the *c*). &c.

SYLLABLES IN INDIVIDUAL WORDS.

41. A word has as many syllables as it contains separate vowels or diphthongs: *Ge=ten*, *ba=ten*. In dividing words into syllables when there are consonants at the close of the syllable, the division is based upon the following principles:

1. A single consonantal sound between vowels belongs after a long vowel or diphthong to the following syllable: *hō=ten*, *ſprā=che*, *hei=lig*. After a short vowel it is divided equally between the two syllables: *hā=ſſen*, *āl=te*, *lā=chen* (*lax'en*), *ſin=gen* (*ziy'en*). Such divided consonantal sounds are usually represented by double consonants except in case of *þ* and *ng*.

2. Two or more consonantal sounds between vowels are after a short vowel divided up conveniently between the two syllables: *fa=ſten*, *Gan=ſten*, *für=ſten*. After a long vowel they are carried over to the following syllable: *hū=ſten*, *ſtern*. In words of Latin or Greek origin, any combination of consonants that can begin a word is carried over to the following syllable: *Mē=trum*, &c. See 4. 2. A. d. (3). In both native and foreign words, however, they must, without regard to the quantity of the vowel, be divided up between the syllables, if it is difficult to carry them over: *ſer=de*, *Nün=tius*.

3. Compound words form exceptions to the above rules, as the syllabic division is made on etymological principles, and hence falls between the components: *Hau=ſtür*, *ent=äu=ßern*.

a. Exceptions are *dar*, *war*, *her*, *hin*, when they stand before a vowel in

compounds: *ba-rü'ber*, *wa-ru'm*, *he-ru'm*, *hi-nei'n*. In the careless pronunciation of ordinary conversation other exceptions occur, as the distinct etymological elements are not always in the consciousness of the speaker: *be-zü'-bach:ten*, *au-fer-steh-en*, &c.

4. In unaccented *el*, *em*, *en*, *er*, the *e* in rapid talking often drops entirely out, and the consonants *l*, *m*, *n*, *r* form of themselves syllables, which is indicated by phonetists by the sign *o* under the letter. *Hügel*, *lieben*, *lieben*, pro. *hü:gl^o*, *li:b^om*, *li:b^oy*. In careless speech the syllabic lingual nasal *n* often becomes the labial nasal *m* after the labials *b*, *p*, *m*, and becomes the palatal nasal *ɲ* after a palatal (*y*, *k*, *R*): *li:b^om*, *lip^om*, *nam^om* instead of *lieben*, *lippen*, *Namen*; *z^oiy^o*, *dan^oky*, *var^oy* instead of *singen*, *danke*, *waren*.

All syllabic consonants fill out about the full time required to pronounce an unaccented syllable, and hence words containing them cannot form good rhymes with words containing unsyllabic consonants: thus *Karren* (*karn*) should not rhyme with *Warn*.

SYLLABLES IN CONNECTED DISCOURSE.

42. In ordinary language, words often lose their etymological identity in our consciousness and different words blend together, and are often treated in actual practice as one word with different syllables, in which case the rules given above for separating syllables apply also here: *Heute nahm er* das Buch mit is pronounced *Heute nā=mer* das Buch mit.

SEPARATION OF SYLLABLES AT THE END OF A LINE.

43. The separation of long words at the end of a line usually takes place according to the natural laws of separation in the spoken language as given above, but a few variations occur, and hence the complete rules are given as follows:

1. A consonant between two vowels belongs to the following syllable: *hü=ten*, *be=ken*, &c.

2. If several consonants stand between vowels usually only the last one is carried over: *Nit=ter*, *Sperlin=ge* (pro. *speR'liŋə*, i.e. *ŋ* being pronounced as any double consonant with both syllables), *flir=ren*, *Klemp=ner*, *Arch=el*, *frat=zen*, *Städ=te*, *Verwand=te*, *kämp=fen*, *Karp=fen*.

3. *ß*, *ch*, *sch*, *ph*, *st*, *th* are never separated: *Bu=ße*, *Be=cher*, *Hä=scher* (but *Häus=chen*; see 6, below), *Gewar=phie*, *Lu=sten*, *Klo=ster*, *Ma=thilde*.

4. *ff* is separated into *f-f*: *Def=fel*.

5. In foreign words all combinations of *b*, *p*, *d*, *t*, *g*, *f* with *l* or *r* are carried over: *Bu=blikum*, *Me=trum*, *Gy=brant*.

6. Compound words are separated first into the different elements of which the compound consists, and within each element the rules given above are observed: *Fürsten=schloß*, *Lür=an=gel* (pro. *ay'al*), *Häus=chen*. Notice *Schiffahrt*, &c., but *Schiff=fahrt*, &c.

a. This separation at the end of the line of compound words into their component elements will not always be the same as the pronunciation: *darum* (= *dar + um*) is separated *dar=um*, but pronounced *dar=um*; *Inter=esse* (= *L. inter + esse*), but pronounced *Inte=resse*.

ACCENT.

GENERAL STATEMENT.

44. Particular syllables in a word or particular words in a sentence may be made prominent above others and distinguished by especial stress. Thus there is a *word accent* and a *sentence accent*.

I. WORD ACCENT.

45. In polysyllabic words there may be not only the principal accent, but also a secondary accent, and even a third, besides the unaccented syllables. The principal accent in the following articles will be marked by ', or, if there are three accents, by ", the secondary by \, or, if there are three, by ^, the third accent by `; the unaccented syllable by -: *Ver'urteil*, *Un'e'bénheit*'.

Accent must not be confounded with quantity. A syllable may be long, i.e. contain a long vowel, or diphthong, or a short vowel followed by two or more consonants, and yet have weaker accent than a short syllable, as in *U'grund*. A long heavy syllable, however, has a tendency to attract force to itself from the principal accent, and in cases even becomes more strongly accented than the syllable that should logically have the chief stress, as in *Wach'ol'ber* instead of *Wach'ol'ber*.

The placing of the accent in German is regulated by the following principles:

1. *Logical accent.* Some particular syllable in a word, usually the root syllable in a simple word and the modifying component element (see 248) in a compound, contains that part of the word which is logically the most important, and hence receives the principal accent: *sing'en*, *Gesang'*, *Schul'haus*.

The next important syllable after the principal one receives secondary accent, and, if a compound, that syllable in the basal compound element receives secondary accent, which would have principal accent if the component element were an independent word: *Durch'mes'ser*, *Fahr'waf'ser*, *Haus'her'ren*.

It will be noticed from these examples that this logical accent usually brings the chief stress upon the first syllable. This logical principle of accenting words is the leading one, but the following deviations occur:

2. *Emphatic Accent.* The speaker may for some emotional reason place unusual stress upon some particular word, but he is then not content with accenting the logically important syllable, but also puts equal or perhaps a little stronger stress upon some other syllable, even though it be an unimportant one, and thus arises a double accent: *un'dant'ba'res Kind!* *eine aus'gesproch'ene Schön'heit*, *end'lo'ser Gram*, *wun'derlich'er Gedanke*, *g'e'rech'ter Him'mel!* In a number of words this emphatic accent which does not rest upon the logically most important syllable has become permanent, and then in common unemphatic language becomes the principal accent of the word: *augenblick'lich*, *außeror'dentlich*, &c.

3. *Rhythmical Accent.* For physiological reasons it is difficult to pronounce two strongly accented syllables in succession. Therefore in such a case the accent is divided so that there will be a rhythmical succession of strong and weak syllables. This rhythmical principle is quite an important one in German and often disturbs the logical accent. Thus it is more common to-day to say *End'urteil*, *Schwimm'anstalt* than *Endurteil*, *Schwimmanstalt*. As it is sometimes difficult to accent a long and heavy compound upon the first syllable as required so often by the logical force of that syllable, the principal accent is sometimes placed upon the first syllable of the second component element: *Hofmund'schent*, *Wingst'sonn'tag*.

4. *Foreign Accent.* In many foreign words the German principle of accenting is entirely abandoned in favour of the original accent of the foreign word, and hence in many words from the French and Latin the chief stress is found upon the last, or less frequently upon the next to the last, syllable: *Elefant'*, *Initiati've*. The accent upon the last syllable is, however, for rhythmical reasons removed to the first when the final syllable is followed by an accented syllable in the next word: *General Blüch'er* instead of *General' Blüch'er*.

The secondary accent in these foreign words is usually upon the first syllable: *Aktivität'*, *ac'compagnie'ren*. Here again the rhythmical tendency to distribute the accented syllables so as to make a succession of strong and weak syllables sometimes disturbs the usual position of the secondary accent: *ac'compagnie'ren* instead of *ac'compagnie'ren*.

II. SENTENCE ACCENT.

46. Logical and emphatic stress prevail in sentence accent. All that seems to the speaker logically more important or as weightier from the standpoint of his own feeling is made prominent by accent. The number of shades in stress is here much greater than in word accent, some being more or less marked, others very fine and scarcely perceptible. The short sentence *Wo wollt ihr denn hin?* may be read with the following accentuations according as the one or the other word becomes logically more important: $\overset{1}{\text{Wo}} \overset{4}{\text{wollt}} \overset{2}{\text{ihr}} \overset{3}{\text{denn}} \overset{1}{\text{hin?}}$ or $\overset{2}{\text{ihr}} \overset{5}{\text{denn}} \overset{3}{\text{hin?}}$ or $\overset{4}{\text{Wo}} \overset{3}{\text{wollt}} \overset{1}{\text{ihr}} \overset{5}{\text{denn}} \overset{2}{\text{hin?}}$ or $\overset{4}{\text{Wo}} \overset{2}{\text{wollt}} \overset{3}{\text{ihr}} \overset{5}{\text{denn}} \overset{1}{\text{hin?}}$ The lower numbers here denote stronger, the higher numbers weaker accent.

DETAILS CONCERNING ACCENT.

I. WORD ACCENT.

Principal Accent.

47. 1. *Accent in Simple Stem Words.* The root syllable has here the accent: *Spra'che*, *ging'en*, *gu'ten*.

2. *Accent in Derivative Words.* Words with suffixes and prefixes are often differently accented.

A. In words with suffixes the accent rests upon the root syllable: *Wädr̥t*, *heĩt̥lĩg*, *traum̥hast̥*.

The following exceptions occur:

a. Words ending in the suffix *-lei* are accented upon the last syllable, as the suffix *lei* (i. e. *kind*) was originally a noun, and the element preceding it is thus a modifying adjective, and still retains the weak accent which usually belongs to an adjective in sentence accent: *eĩnerlei*, *manch̥elei*. Often, however, especially when such a derivative stands attributively before a noun accented upon the first syllable, the accent shifts from the *lei* to the first syllable to avoid the collision of two accented syllables: *eĩnerlei* *far̥be*.

b. A few words have from various causes shifted their accent from the root syllable: those in *-en̥z̥e(l)u* (as *sch̥arwen̥z̥eln*) except *faul̥enz̥en*; *Horn̥ĩs̥ie* (also *Her̥n̥isse*), *leben̥dĩg*, *Maß̥hol̥der* (also *Maß̥holder*), *Wach̥ol̥der* (also *Wach̥older*), *Holun̥der*; *offen̥bar*, *unmittel̥bar*, also *of̥fen̥bar*, *un̥mittel̥bar*; *Fore̥l̥e*, *Hermel̥ĩn*, *Walf̥is̥re*; a few feminine Christian names, the second component of which ends in an unaccented syllable, as *Gertru̥de* (but *Ger̥trud̥*), *Kun̥igun̥de*, &c.; in the North names in *lĩn*, as *Wö̥d̥lĩn* (in S.G. *Wö̥d̥lĩn*); the verbs *froh̥lo̥d̥en* (also *froh̥lo̥den*), *sch̥maro̥ben*, *will̥fah̥ren* (also *will̥fah̥ren*).

c. A very large number of foreign words have the accent upon the last or next to the last syllable: *ĩn̥fĩnĩtĩv̥*, *ĩnĩtĩatĩv̥e*, &c. There is a tendency for those accented upon the last syllable to shift it upon the first in accordance with German fashion: *ĩn̥fĩnĩtĩv̥*, &c. Some, as *Kom̥paß̥*, have become thoroughly naturalized and have the accent upon the first syllable.

Foreign names of nationalities in *-er* accent the next to the last syllable, if that syllable is long, otherwise the first syllable: *Hebr̥ḁ̈er*, *Kart̥ḁ̈ger*, but *U̥r̥äber*, *S̥ḁ̈ler*.

A number of accented foreign suffixes are also now added to German words, especially *āge*, *ālie*, *āner*, *ant̥*, *ei̥*, *ei̥en* (infinitive ending), *en̥fer*, *ie̥ren* (infinitive ending), *ie̥run̥g*, *ist̥*, *ōs̥*: *Lapp̥ḁ̄lie*, *Weimar̥ḁ̄ner* inhabitant of Weimar, *Bḁ̈d̥ereĩ*, *Kast̥eĩen*, *Jen̥en̥er* inhabitant of Jena, *stol̥zie̥ren*, *sch̥aud̥er̥ōs̥* (slang) frightful, *pe̥sch̥ōs̥* (slang) unfortunate.

d. In adding the German suffix *ĩsch̥* to words, foreign adjectives have the accent upon the syllable preceding *ĩsch̥*, while German words accent the root syllable: *arḁbĩsch̥*, *āth̥eĩrĩsch̥*, but *sl̥op̥st̥od̥ĩsch̥* or *sl̥op̥st̥od̥ĩsch̥*. Only *luth̥eĩrĩsch̥* *Lutheran* among German words has here foreign accent. This word has also a regular German accent, but with a different shade of meaning: *Luth̥er̥s̥* [i] *sch̥* *Luther's, coming from Luther*, as *die* *Luth̥er̥s̥* [i] *sch̥e* *Bibel̥ũber̥set̥zung̥*. Catholics and often Protestants pronounce this word *luth̥eĩrĩsch̥* in both of these meanings.

B. Prefixes are differently accented, as follows:

a. Adjectives or substantives with the prefix *ge-* are accented upon the root syllable, those with *ant̥*, *et̥z̥*, *miß̥* upon the prefix, those with *un̥z̥*, *ur̥z̥*, and *er̥z̥* sometimes upon the root syllable, sometimes upon the prefix: *Ges̥ang̥*, *Ant̥wort̥*, *et̥was̥*, *Miß̥mut̥*; *Un̥hold̥*, but *un̥ũber̥se̥l̥s̥bar̥*; *Ur̥funde*, but *un̥r̥l̥ōg̥lĩch̥*; *Er̥z̥bĩsch̥of̥*, but *Er̥z̥bĩe̥l̥*. Nouns with *un̥z̥* and *ur̥z̥*, and monosyllabic and also polysyllabic adjectives with the prefix *un̥z̥*, provided they do not end in *-lĩch̥*, *-bar*, or *-sam̥*, accent usually the prefix, while nouns and adjectives with *er̥z̥*, adjectives with *ur̥z̥*, perfect participles with *un̥z̥*, and polysyllabic adjectives with *un̥z̥* and at the same time the suffixes *-lĩch̥*, *-bar*, or *-sam̥*, take usually the stress upon the root syllable, the last group, however, only when the words have passive force: *Un̥men̥sch̥*, *Ur̥sprung̥*, *un̥paß̥*, *un̥abh̥āngĩg̥*, *un̥vert̥eil̥hast̥*, *un̥ver̥m̥ōgend̥*; *Er̥z̥sch̥elm̥*, *er̥z̥dumm̥*, *uralt̥*, *un̥enth̥weg̥t̥*, *un̥gel̥ōgen̥*, *un̥ver̥dĩent̥*, *un̥be̥sch̥āf̥tĩgt̥*, *un̥er̥fors̥ch̥lĩch̥*, *un̥aus̥fũh̥r̥bar̥*, *un̥auf̥halt̥sam̥*; but *un̥er̥freulĩch̥*, *un̥taug̥lĩch̥*, &c., as they have active force. A few in *-lĩch̥* have the accent upon the root syllable, although they do not have passive force, as they have emphatic accent (see 45. 2, above): *un̥m̥ōg̥lĩch̥*, *un̥ent̥lĩch̥*, *un̥ver̥z̥ũg̥lĩch̥*, &c. Even where the meaning is passive we find the accent upon the prefix if the idea is that of actuality rather than mere possibility: *un̥aus̥fũh̥rlĩch̥* *not carried out in detail*,

but unausführlich or unausführbar *impracticable*. Usage fluctuates with regard to the accent of the participle with the prefix un-, but there is a marked tendency to place the accent upon the root syllable. Only a few nouns with erz-, as Erzbischof, Erzherzog (in the North), have the accent upon the prefix.

Note. Different forces are at work upon the accent of these words. Logical, emphatic, or rhythmical accent, according to circumstances, prevails, and hence the varying results. If the prefix is felt as an essential modification of the word, it is accented, if it merely strengthens the meaning of the stem word without adding an essential element to the meaning, the stem word is accented. Thus we say Ur'mensch *inhuman creature*, lit. *not human*, but Unsum'men *enormous sums*; Erz'bischof *archbishop*, but Erz'betrü'ger *arrant rogue*. Instead of un- and erz-, nouns are often used for strengthening force: Höllenlär'm', Heibengel', Piefenfließ', Herzbru'der, Herztie'he, &c., but here the accent upon the first element is also quite common, as in general the emphatic or logical accent may according to circumstances or the individual prevail.

A derivative should have the accent of the word from which it is derived, but emphatic or rhythmical accent sometimes prevents this: Ur'funde und ur'fündlich, but Ur'sprung and ur'sprünglich (also ur'sprünglich).

b. The verbal prefixes be, emp, ent, er, ge, ver, zer, and usually miß, are unaccented: befehl'en, zer'stö'gen. The accent of verbal prefixes is treated at length in articles 215. I and II and 246. II. 8.

c. Nouns and adjectives on the one hand and verbs on the other are sometimes differently treated with regard to accent. This difference points to a different condition of things in prehistoric Germanic. There a noun or adjective might form a compound with some preceding unaccented word, and then in accordance with the prevailing tendency to place the accent upon the first syllable the accent shifted from the basal adjective or substantive component to the first syllable of the compound. Verbs, however, could not as yet form thus compounds with proclitic words, and hence here always retained the accent upon the root syllable. Later certain proclitic adverbs, such as be, ent, er, &c., entered into a loose compound (see 3. A. e, below) with a following accented verb, and, as is usual in such compounds, retained their original weak sentence accent, just as zu Fr'eiden, an Statt', &c. became zus'treiden, an'statt', &c. This early condition of things has left behind the following traces:

aa. Ant and ur, prefixes of nouns, are accented, and have thus with the aid of accent retained their full vowels, while the same prefixes have in verbs, by reason of their weak accent, lost their fullness of vowel and been reduced to the forms ent and er: Ur'teil, but er'teilen; Ant'wort, but ent'sprech'en. When nouns are formed with ent and er, they are not direct compounds, but are derived from verbs: Ent'schul'digung from ent'schul'digen, Er'verbung from er'verben. Antworten, urteilen are derived from the nouns Antwort, Urteil.

bb. In nouns and adjectives, miß is usually accented, while in verbs it is usually unaccented: Miß'brauch, miß'bräuchlich, but miß'brau'chen. In verbs, however, there is at present a marked tendency to shift the accent upon the prefix: miß'brau'chen instead of mißbrau'chen. For explanation of this shifting of the accent see 246. II. 8. Nouns derived directly from verbs have verb accent: Miß'hand'lung from mißhan'deln. Sometimes the same word has verb or noun accent according as the influence of the verb or noun is felt: das Miß'trauen in die (the acc. showing the direction of an activity toward) Bevöl'kerung *distrust in the people*, but das Miß'trauen in der Bevöl'kerung *the distrust that prevails among the people*.

3. Accent of Compounds.

A. *Accent of Compound Nouns and Adjectives.* The modifying component takes the principal accent: Haupt'mann, Le'sebuch. This brings the accent usually upon the first syllable. There are, aside from the one word Schlaraff'e, no exceptions to this rule among nouns, provided, however, that

they are true compounds, and are not decomposite. In other classes of compounds there are a number of exceptions:—

a. A number of compound adjectives and adverbs in *zig, zisch, zlos*, have the accent upon the stem of the second component: *notwen'zig, ab'sicht'lich, heillos'*. This accent is the result of the emphatic stress which they often have in forcible language; see 45. 2. The regular accent upon the modifying component is also common: *not'mendig, &c.* A number of other common compounds much used in emphatic language take emphatic stress: *aus'gezeichnet* excellent, *fortwäh'rend* continually, *ausnehm'end* uncommonly, &c.

b. In some compounds the accent has not yet settled down definitely upon either element, since the logical force of neither is strongly pronounced. In this case the accent fluctuates according to the position of the word in the sentence. At the end of the sentence the word is accented upon the second element, within the sentence, when an accented word follows, the first element is accented: *Der Mensch ist noch blutjung'*, but *ein blut'junger Mensch*. These words are:—

aa. Compounds of which the first element is a substantive that does not contain an essential modification of the basal component, but only strengthens it by giving a concrete illustration of the general idea already contained in it: *mausetot, blutrot, pech'schwarz, baumstark, wunder'schön, federleicht, sonnenklar, stoffblind, grasgrün, &c.*

bb. Thus also compounds of which the first element is an adjective or adverb that does not contain an essential modification, but only defines more definitely the general idea contained in the second element: *hellgelb, dunkelgelb, scharlachrot, vielgenannt, fleimwüzig, &c.*

c. Sometimes there is a difference of meaning in connection with a difference of accent: *stein'reich stony*, but *steinreich' very rich*; *ein außerordentlicher Professor an assistant professor*, but *ein außerord'entlicher Professor a professor of extraordinary merit*; *Don'nerwetter thunderstorm*, but *Donnerwet'ter (exclamation or oath)*; *aus'gezeichnet (participle) distinguished*, but *ausgezeichnet'net (adj.) splendid*. The accent upon the first syllable marks the element as a modifying one, while the lack of the accent there shows that it contains no essential modification of the basal component, or, as in the last three examples, the removal of the principal accent from the first syllable may be for emphasis.

d. The adjectives and adverbs *all, groß*, and especially words that have intensifying force, as *hoch, wohl, &c.*, usually have chief stress in compound nouns, while they have secondary or fluctuating (see *b. aa* and *bb*, above) stress in adjective compounds: *All'macht, Groß'macht, Hoch'deutsch, Wohl'stand*, but *allmäch'tig, großmäch'tig, hochwei'se, wohl'e'del, hoch'fein', &c.* It must be noticed, however, that nouns made from these adjectives also have the accent of the adjectives: *allgemein' and Allgemein'heit*. The difference in accent usually found between nouns and adjectives comes from the fact that the logical force of the component is felt in nouns, while in adjectives it is destroyed by emphatic accent, or the first component has only strengthening force, as in *b. aa* and *bb*, above. Also in adjectives the first component must have accent when it really contains an essential modification of the basal component: *all'seitig, groß'mütig, hoch'deutsch, wohl'geboren*. Notice, however, that the second component in other compounds may take the accent for quite a different reason from that given for the above-mentioned adjectives, namely, because it becomes logically emphatic: *altin'disch* in contrast to *altnor'disch*, but *alt'englisch* in contrast to *neu'englisch*.

e. A large number of compounds are not in fact true compounds, but merely the syntactical fragments of a sentence which have been written as one word. Such improper or loose compounds are not accented as true compounds, but retain the accent which they had as elements in the sentence, i. e. sentence accent. A few illustrations of this sentence accent in improper compounds may serve to explain many deviations from the rules

given above for accent in compounds: (1) Adjectives compounded with a substantive have usually the accent, but, as adjectives standing before nouns in the syntactical structure of a sentence shift the accent upon the noun, so may such syntactical constructions retain their original accent when they are written together and spoken as one word: Jung'frau, Grau'bart, but der Geheim'ister, Geheim'rat (but Geheim'rat, when the syntactical structure is broken and a regular compound is formed). (2) The articles in loose compounds remain unaccented as in sentence accent: dersel'be, desglei'chen, einmal' (but ein'mal *once*, as ein is a numeral and not an article) *once upon a time*, but der'jenige, as the demonstrative force is felt. (3) An attributive genitive in loose compounds takes the accent if it follows the dependent noun, as in sentence accent: Muttergot'tes, zeitle'bens. If the governing noun follows, it is accented in case of compounds denoting a period of time, as in Tagesan'fang, thus retaining here also the original sentence accent, while other compounds of this form are usually true compounds and take the accent upon the first component. (4) A name of a material or something measurable when compounded with some word denoting a measure, quantity, or weight, takes the accent as in sentence accent: Viertelstun'de, Viertel'jahr', but Halb'jahr, as it is a regular compound. (5) Prepositions in loose compounds remain unaccented, as in sentence accent: abhan'den, absei'ten. (6) Numeral compounds take the accent upon the last element except in the attributive relation, where the first element is accented: fünfundzwanz'ig, dreihun'dert, dritte'halb', but fünf'undzwanzig Mann, drei'hundert Mann, drit'tehalb Liter. (7) The last part of the name of an individual takes the accent as in sentence accent: Hanswurt' (also Hans'wurt) jack-pudding. (8) When a whole sentence becomes a loose compound, the accent varies according as the origin of the compound is felt, or it is felt as a true compound: Lebehoch', gott'lieb', but Keh'r'aus, Sau'f'aus, Pa'd'an. (9) Points of the compass have accent upon the last element: Nor'dost', Süd'ost', Nord'west'.

f. A few peculiar modern formations have the accent upon the second element: Jahr'hun'dert, Jahr'tau'send, Jahr'zehnt'.

g. Names of places vary much in their accent, and no reliable rules can be given as a guide. Usually the many words before -burg, -berg, -heim, -stadt, -dorf, &c., are modifying components, and take the accent, as Kö'nigsberg, Frank'furt, &c. But in many words no logical relation between the parts is felt, and the second component takes the accent in accordance with a growing tendency to shift the accent toward the middle or end of the word, as in Alt'stre'lig, Bernigero'de, Ragenel'tenbegen, &c. This is especially the case when the second component ends in an unaccented syllable: Bernas'tel, Holzmin'den, Kaiser'slau'tern, Wittenber'ge (but Wit'tenberg), &c. In the following cases the final component is usually accented, however not uniformly in all parts of the country: compounds of which the first element is an adjective, as Oberme'sel, Großber'ten; those in -brunn, -bruch, -brück, -brunn, -busch, -förde, -gräß, -hall, -hausen, -horst, -münde, -reuth, -rede, -see, -walde, -werth, -wörth, as in Paderborn', Heilbrunn', Königshor't, Eberswal'de, &c. The first component, however, must in all cases take the accent when it becomes essential to the thought, as for instance to make a contrast, or to distinguish two names having the same basal component: Ich wehne nicht in Neu'stre'lig, sondern in Alt'stre'lig. The local pronunciation of names of places often varies from that generally heard elsewhere. The people of the well-known university town Greifswald, for instance, accent the name of their city upon the first syllable to distinguish it from the names of other places having the same basal component, while people generally accent here, as in numberless other cases, the second element, as they are not acquainted with the other less known places having the same basal component, and hence do not feel the logical force of the first component. On the other hand, the inhabitants of a place which has for a name a compound word with a familiar basal component, as in the case of Papenburg', may accent the basal component, as to them the

mere name with the accent upon the second element is perfectly clear, while elsewhere people generally accent the first element to distinguish it from other names having the same basal component.

Thus, there is here a good deal of irregularity. Even where the first element is a modifying component it does not uniformly take the accent: *Norddeutschland*, but *Nordamerika*. This irregularity is frequently caused by the tendency to arrange the accents so as to make an easy and rhythmical succession: *die Küste von Nordafrika*, but *die nordafrikanische Küste*. Also in names of persons the usual accent is disturbed by rhythmical accent, as the titles have a weak stress and may cause a rearrangement of the accents of the name: *Hoheule*, but *Fürst Hoheule*.

B. *Accent of Compound Verbs*. The accent here depends upon the nature of the compound: (1) If the modifying component is separable, it is accented: *aufstehen*, *untergehen*, *ausgehen*. (2) If the modifying component is inseparable, it is unaccented: *übersehen*, *vollziehen*. The adjective *vollkommen* *complete*, *perfect*, belongs here, as it is in fact the perf. participle of the lost inseparable *vollkommen*. As its origin is forgotten and it is felt as an adjective, it also shifts the accent upon the first syllable. The adjective participle *willkommen* *welcome* has been influenced in its accent by *vollkommen*. (3) If the verbal compound is not directly compounded, but has been formed from a compound noun, it has noun accent: *frühstücken*. This subject is treated at length in articles 215-218.

a. Nouns formed from these verbs retain the accent of the verb: *vollziehen*, *Vollzug*; *vorfallen*, *Vorfall*.

However, here, as in 2. B. c, above, we find in one group of words a different treatment of noun and verb. Nouns in composition with *durch*, *hinter*, *über*, *um*, *unter*, *wider*, have uniformly the accent upon the prefix, although the corresponding verb is accented upon the verbal stem: *Widerspruch*, but *widersprechen*; *Durchsicht*, but *durchsehen*; *Unterhalt*, but *unterhalten*. Nouns compounded with these prepositions take, however, the accent of verbs if they have a suffix: *Umgebung*, *Unterhaltung*, *Hinterlassenschaft*.

b. In older periods of the language the perfect participle like other adjectives took the accent upon the first syllable and hence upon the prefix, while in case of verbs compounded with a proclitic adverb (i.e. an inseparable prefix) the pure verbal forms had sentence accent, i.e. accent upon the verbal stem, as explained in 2. B. c, above. The old manner of accenting the participle may still survive in the one participial adjective *untertan* *subject to*, participle of the now obsolete *untertun* (still found in early N.H.G.; see 1 Cor. xv. 27). It is quite possible here, however, that the present accent of the adjective participle is modern, the accent shifting from the verbal stem to the prefix, as the word was felt as an adjective and noun, and all relation to the lost *untertun* was forgotten. Aside from this isolated example the accent of the participle now follows that of the verb: *vollziehen*, part. of *vollziehen*.

C. *Accent of Compound Adverbs and Interjections*. The accent here rests usually upon the last syllable: *berauf*, *stromab*, *hinüber*, *hervor*, *darauf*, *vielleicht*, *vielmehr*, *juhe!* The logical importance of some other syllable often causes exceptions to this rule: *dadurch*, *darin*, &c. become *da'durch*, *da'rin* when the demonstrative force is felt; see 141. 5. A. b.

D. *Accent of Decomposite Words*. Although a compound may consist of two words or several, it can as a rule have only two component elements—the *basal component*, which contains the more general idea, and the *modifying component*, which contains an essential modification. Either component may be a compound. The modifying component of decomposites takes the accent according to the principles given in A and B, above, for simple compound nouns, adjectives, and verbs: *Bundestagsbeschluss* (*Bundestag* + *Beschluss*), *vorurteilsfrei* (*Vorurteil* + *frei*), *übereutellen* (*über* + *verteilen*), and many compounds (see 245. IV. 3. B) which are not yet generally written as one

word, such as in *stānd' setzen*, *zu Grun'de legen*. Nouns made from this last class of verbs retain the verb accent and are usually written as true compounds in one word: *Instānd'setzung*, *Zugrun'delēgung*. If the compound has more than two components, it is usually a loose compound, i.e. a whole sentence or a syntactical fragment of a sentence which is written as one word, or it may be a mere co-ordination of words. Such a loose compound has in some cases sentence accent and in others accent upon the first syllable after the manner of a true compound: *Einmaleins'*, *sechshundertunddrei'ßig*, *schwarzrotgold'ene Fahne*, but *Stell'dichein*, *Spring'insfeld*. When a loose compound becomes a modifying component, it usually retains its original sentence accent: *Armsün'derhemd*, *Altwei'bergeschwāß*, *Sauregur'tenzeit*, *Dummer-jung'enstreich*, *Muttergot'tesbild*.

a. Many exceptions are found to the above general rules. There is an evident tendency in long words to shift the accent from the first component to the second, if the latter is compound, on account of the physical difficulty of accenting a syllable so far removed from the end. This occurs especially in case of: (1) The names of certain church festivals or holidays: *Palmsonn'tag*, *Karfreit'ag*, *Aschermitt'woch*, &c. (2) Many titles or official positions: *Amtschau't'mann*, *Hofkommissions'rat*, *Generalpost'meister*, especially those in *ober* and *unter*, as *Oberstaats'anwalt*, *Unterstaats'sekretär*. For the same reason a compound modifying component shifts its accent occasionally upon its second (i.e. basal) component, when the basal component of the decomposite is a simple element: *Frei'hafen*, but *Freiha'senstadt*; *Land'gericht*, but *Landgerichts'rat*, &c. This shifting of the accent upon the second component becomes a rule where the first element does not contain an essential modification of the basal component, but has only strengthening force: *mutterseelen'allein'*, *Erztau'genicht's*.

E. *Accent of Derivatives formed from Compounds and Compounds formed from Derivatives*. A derivative formed from a compound is accented as a derivative, but a compound in which the basal component is a derivative is accented as a compound: *Liebh'aberei'* (*Lieb'h'aber + ei*), but *Stadt'polizei* (*Stadt + Polizei'*); *Schri'fstellerei'* (*Schri'f'teller + ei*), but *Paß'schere'ei* (*Paß + Schere'ei*).

4. *Pronunciation of Foreign Words*. The accent here depends upon whether the word is still distinctly felt as a foreign or as a German word. Many foreign words have been thoroughly naturalized and have received German accent, many others are sometimes pronounced as foreign words, sometimes as German words; the greater number, however, still retain the accent of the language from which they were borrowed. Some words which are now accented as German words had foreign accent in earlier periods of the language. In view of the great irregularity that here prevails, this subject cannot be treated in a grammar, and the student must be referred to his lexicon. The German dictionaries in use in Germany avoid these foreign words, but they are usually treated in a separate work called *Fremdwörterbuch*.

Secondary Accent.

48. Secondary accent is not bound so closely to certain syllables as is the principal accent, but is often under different circumstances shifted from one syllable to another. There are two factors involved in determining secondary accent—a *logical* and a *physiological* principle. Sometimes both unite in fixing the accent upon a certain syllable, sometimes one principle gains the victory over the other.

1. *Logical Principle in Secondary Accent*. This principle is applied in compound and derivative words as follows:

A. In compound words, that syllable receives secondary accent which would receive principal accent if the component were an independent word:

Fahr'wa'sser, Haus'her'ren, aus'mer'zen. In decomposites, although there may be a number of different words, there will be usually only two components, so that the principal accent falls upon the principal syllable of the modifying component and the secondary accent upon the principal syllable of the basal component: *Wa'terlandslie'be* (*Wa'terland + Lie'be*), *Feld'dieb'stahl*. The accent here is, however, often disturbed by the tendency (described in 2, below) to distribute the accents so as to make a regular and rhythmical succession of accented and unaccented syllables: *Wo'ranzei'gē, End'urteilē* instead of *Wo'an'zeige, End'ur'teile*.

B. Accent of Suffixes. After a root syllable which contains the principal meaning and chief accent, certain prefixes from their logical force as modifying elements take secondary accent, some of which are the remnants of once independent words. These suffixes are:

a. Substantive suffixes: *āt, üt, öd, heit, in, feit, lein, ling, nis, sal, schäst, tūm:* *Gei'ma'ten, Klei'no'de, Kö'nigin, Ewigkeit'.*

b. Adjective suffixes: *bär, häst, icht, ig, isch, lich, sam, selig:* *brauch'bäre, leb'hä'ste.*

2. Physiological Principle in Secondary Accent. For physiological reasons it is difficult to pronounce two accented syllables one after the other. It is easier and at the same time more rhythmical to place an unaccented syllable between the first and second accent. Thus to avoid the clashing of principal and secondary accent the latter is often removed from the syllable logically important to one of minor importance: *Wo'ranzei'ge* instead of *Wo'an'zeige*. On the other hand it is difficult to pronounce more than two unaccented syllables one after the other, and hence the natural tendency is to give one of several unaccented syllables a secondary accent, provided, however, that it will not clash with another accent of the same strength: *bef'sere' Gestalt'*, but the secondary accent upon a final syllable must be suppressed or shifted when it would stand before another accent: *sie erwar'tete Ma'rian'nen; das End'urteil' erfolgt', but das End'ur'teil spricht'.* Thus secondary accent depends largely upon the accents in the preceding or following syllables. The following details should be noted:

a. In polysyllabic words the secondary accent depends upon the logical value or the position of the syllable. The important syllables as described in 1, above, are accented if their position admits of it. Also a short logically unimportant syllable receives an accent if it is at a distance of two or more syllables from the principal accent, providing it is not followed by an accent: *hei'tere' Gesell'schaft.*

The intensity of all secondary accents increases with their distance from the principal accent, and sometimes becomes stronger than the accent upon a logically more important syllable: in *Auf'seh'erin'nen* the suffix *in* has a stronger accent than the root syllable *seh*. Here, however, as elsewhere, the secondary accent is influenced by the accent of the following word, as two accents must not come together: *Hoff'nungen' erweckt', but Hoff'nungen täusch't'.*

b. A single syllable between two accents is unaccented: *Das Al'ter schü'tt' vor Tor'heit nicht'.*

c. If there are two syllables between two accents, they are both unaccented if short, but the first may be accented if it is long: *Wider'stand'heit', but Un'z'e'bēnheit', sel't'sā'mē Art'.* The second of the two syllables standing between accents can be accented only when the word stands before a pause in the sentence or at the end of the sentence, in which cases it does not really stand between two accents, but between an accent and a pause: *Dem Glück'l'ichen kann' es an nichts' gebrech'en, or Dem Glück'l'ichen | kann' es an nichts' gebrech'en. Dem wech'selndē Le'ben, but Gar wech'selnd ist des Mannes rascher Sinn, dem Leben untertan, dem wech'selnden'.*

d. If there are three syllables between two accents, the middle syllable usually takes the secondary accent unless it be considerably lighter and

shorter than the first syllable, in which case the first syllable is accented: ein un'banf'fā'res Rimb', but eine un'glück'lich'e Lie'be. The third of these syllables can never have the accent, as it would bring it immediately before the principal accent (see *e*).

e. A secondary accent can stand *before* the principal accent, but never immediately before it: wi'berle'gen, The'ologie'. Here as elsewhere the intensity of the secondary accent increases with its distance from the principal stress. Thus the secondary accent is much stronger in the second of the two preceding examples.

f. In foreign words the secondary accent lies upon the first syllable, and if the word is long a third accent may be placed between the two accents: Re'ligion', Re'ligio's'ität'. Here as elsewhere the natural tendency to make a succession of strong and weak syllables often disturbs the accent: Mili'gion'.

Unaccented Syllables.

49. The limitation of the principal accent in the main to the root syllable is now a principle quite generally observed throughout the Germanic family of languages, including both English and German. This system has not always obtained, as fossil remnants still show, but since its adoption has been of great influence in shaping the form of the German language. Since the principal syllable, which is usually the root syllable, receives the main accent, the inflectional endings, many suffixes, and the prefixes *be*, *emp*, *ent*, *er*, *ge*, *ver*, *zer*, are neglected in accenting, and hence they have lost the full vowel forms which they once had. The various vowels and diphthongs of the languages, as *a*, *o*, *u*, *au*, &c., have been preserved only in the accented syllables, while in the unaccented syllables the same vowels and diphthongs have all been reduced quite uniformly to *e*: *erfūl'ten* (Gothic *usfulljan*). In words like *Gīgēntū'mēr* the secondary accent has preserved the vowels from decay, while the unaccented vowels have been reduced to *e*. Many words have lost their fullness of sound, many vowels have disappeared for ever. The process of decay has not yet ceased. Sometimes the vowel *e* is now of so little importance that it can be pronounced or omitted: *gerade* or *grab*, *hänge* or *bang*. Sometimes the *e*, although it has dropped out in comparatively recent times, is no longer felt at all. No one thinks any more of the *e* once after *g* in *Glau'be*, *Glū'd*, &c. In the different inflectional systems, *e* is often in familiar language entirely suppressed, while in a more choice style it can be skilfully dropped or employed according to the rhythmical requirements of the sentence. See **62. F. b**. It will also in this connection be noticed throughout the Grammar that the German is especially fond of the trochee (— ◡) or the falling spondee (— —) as a word foot, and is now usually disposed to change longer feet into these favorite shorter feet by dropping an unaccented *e*, if it can be conveniently done. Thus — ◡ ◡ ◡, — ◡ ◡ ◡, — ◡ ◡ ◡, become — ◡, — —, — ◡: *Rē'nīgē*, not *Rē'nīgēs*; *Mō'nāgē*, not *Mō'nāgēs*; *hī'mmlīsh*, not *hī'mmlīshē*. It must be noticed that the dropping of *e* here is solely a question of accent, for in disyllabic forms the same words retain the *e*: (*des*) *Tage's*, (*der*) *Himmel*. Also in words closely united by thought we can notice the tendency to divide up the syllables into disyllabic feet: *heute*, but *heut'zū'tā'gē*. Thus also trisyllabic rising feet become disyllabic: *bē'gūt'len*, from *be + geleiten*; *bē'gnū'gen*, from *be + genügen*. It should be noticed, however, that the literary form of speech is averse to all these changes of feet, if the clearness of the thought could thereby be endangered. Thus we must say *wandelte* (past indic.) and not *wandelt*, for the latter form would be the same as the pres. indic., and would thus endanger the thought. In the first class of strong nouns, however, even the literary language has endorsed this dropping of *e*, although the plural became thereby identical in form with the sing.; see **67**. Dialect goes much farther in suppressing unaccented sounds than the written language. In S.G. dialect

also unaccented final *n* has disappeared: Du mußt (mußt) bei mir bleibe (for bleiben)—Auerbach.

In many words full vowels have been preserved in the unaccented syllable, but such words are quite uniformly of foreign origin: Mula'te, Do's'ter, Minu'te, &c. Only in such words as U'hu, and in a number of names, as Otto, Gerta, &c., has the unaccented vowel been preserved in German words.

II. SENTENCE ACCENT.

50. In a sentence the different words do not have uniform accent, but here again the logical principle of accenting the important words and slighting the unimportant is observed. This logical accent falls into two general classes, which may be styled *grammatical accent* and *logical* or *emphatic accent*, which are treated in the two following articles.

A. Grammatical Accent.

As certain syllables of a word take accent by reason of their logical importance, so also are certain grammatical elements of a sentence of greater logical importance than others, and receive accordingly greater accent. General rules can be laid down for the accent of the different grammatical elements, but it must be remembered that they are only general rules and are set aside whenever the logically important idea shifts to other elements. As will be seen below, the question of accent is sometimes intimately connected with that of word-order.

The following hints may be useful:

1. In general the predicate as the most important thing to be communicated is more strongly accented than the subject: Der Hund be'ißt.

2. The predicate adjective or noun, the dependent infinitive or participle, the separable prefix of a separable verb, are of more importance than the copula, auxiliary, or finite verb which bind them to the subject, and hence receive the accent, and according to German usage stand at the end of the sentence. For this important point, see 215. II. 1. A and 285. II. B. *b. gg.*

3. If the predicate verb has an object or adverbial modifier, these usually take a stronger accent than the verb itself, except in case of a reflexive or personal pronoun: Das Werk lobt den Mei'ster. Er spricht lau't. Sie reden zusa'mmen (at the same time), but Sie re'den zusammen (= miteinander). Er freu't sich.

4. If there are a number of objects or adverbial modifiers, the logically more important are accented and stand toward the end of the sentence, especially an adverb of place: Columbus fuhr am 3. August 1492 von Pa'los ab. The order here is treated in detail in 285. II. B. *c, d, e.*

5. An adjective usually receives less stress than the noun it limits: Der japanesi'sche Kai'ser. Here, however, the logical importance often shifts upon the adjective: Gib mir das brau'ne Pferd.

6. Pronouns, articles, prepositions, conjunctions, auxiliaries receive less stress than other parts of speech. These classes of words often become enclitics or proclitics, when an accented syllable *immediately* precedes or follows, that is, they here lose their accent and are treated as if they were a part of the preceding or following word: (enclitics) ha'ßt du (pro. ha'stu), die Na'cht durch, &c.; (proclitics) durch Sie'ße, es i'st, er wei'ß, but e'r lä'se'nt because the pronoun is followed by an unaccented syllable. Often monosyllabic pronouns or articles become enclitics after prepositions, and are sometimes even contracted and thoroughly fused into one word with the preposition: mi't euch, bei' ihm, au'f das or aufs, in dem or im. See also 57. B and C, and 58. B. *b, c.*

7. When two or more elements are closely related, there is often a marked tendency to bind them, as in a loose compound, still more closely together by one principal accent, which rests upon the last element, especially in the following cases:

a. When the one word is in apposition with the other : Mutter *Natur*. Wer soll dein Hüter sein, Vater *Hein* ?

b. When a title and a proper name form one idea : Kaiser *Wilhelm*.

c. In case of Christian and surname : Jakob *Grimm*; but *Erich Schmidt*, nicht *Johnnes Schmidt*.

d. Usually in case of a noun and its modifying genitive, although here occur many exceptions according to logical requirements : Er wird *die Schwelle meines Hauses* nicht übertreten, or Er wird *meines Hauses Schwelle* nicht übertreten. The genitive of specification, however, for logical reasons usually takes the accent : Die *Kunst des Sterbens* ist allgemein, or less commonly *Des Sterbens Kunst* ist allgemein.

e. Usually in case of a noun with its modifying prepositional phrase, when they together form one idea : Das Buch auf dem *Tisch*.

f. When a noun denoting a weight or measure and the following noun denoting a material or something measurable together form the idea of a complete whole : ein Stück *Luch*, ein Glas *Wein*, eine fünfstel *Meile*.

g. In case of several words which are connected by a preposition or conjunction and form together one idea : Zweig auf *Zweige* *one branch upon the other*, i. e. all upon one pile, weit und *breit*, Grund und *Bo den* *property, real estate*; jung und *alt*, groß und *klein*, arm und *reich*. The unity of the idea arises here from the fact that the words are either synonyms, and thus represent the same thing from two different standpoints, or are opposites or complements, and thus show the whole range of the idea from the two extremes. Of course the logical importance of the first word may sometimes require it to be accented : *Zweig* auf *Zweig* (compare with first example above) *one branch at a time*. The accent upon the first word here shows that it is to be taken separately.

h. When several nouns denoting things of the same kind are placed together to express *one* idea : Das *Nbr*; *bum*, *bu'm*; *Südwest*.

B. Logical and Emphatic Accent.

Logical and emphatic accent are sovereign and can set aside all the preceding rules, disturbing both the grammatical and word accent. Any word or syllable can for logical or emotional reasons receive the accent : Der *Ma'n*n (the *man*, not the *woman*) ist nicht *alt*. Der *Mann* ist *alt*. Der *Mann* ist nicht (contradicting) *alt*. Der *Mann* ist nicht *alt*, sondern *ju'ng*. *De'r* (that) *Mann* ist nicht *alt*. Thus also that syllable or, in a compound, that component may for logical reasons take the principal accent, which under normal conditions uniformly has the secondary accent, or remains unaccented : Der *Hase* ist nicht *furchtba'r*, sondern *furchtsa'm*. Er hat nicht eine *Bre'n*neri, sondern eine *Brau'eri* angelegt. Ich habe das mir nicht *erbeten*, sondern *verbeten*. *Aufgesch'o*ben ist nicht *aufgesch'o*ben. Nicht die *Gartentü'r*, sondern die *Gartenmau'er* ist *beschädigt*. One says in correcting an incorrect grammatical form : *gebe'n*, nicht *gebe'*.

51. *Sentence Accent affected by the Rhythm.* Words that are comparatively unimportant to the meaning, and hence do not absolutely demand stress, may be with or without accent, according to the requirement of the natural rhythm of the sentence. They remain unaccented if their accentuation would bring two accented syllables together; but when they are preceded or followed by other less important unaccented syllables they may receive accent in order to make an easy and rhythmical succession of accented and unaccented syllables. Thus in the following sentences the predicate verb, which in general is weakly accented when it has modifiers, has in the one instance no accent, because it is followed by an accent, while in the other it is accented, as it is followed by an unaccented syllable : *Bo'rgen* macht *So'rgen*, but *Klei'der* ma'chen *Leu'te*. However, when the logical force of the words becomes strong, they must receive accent, even though the accent disturbs the rhythm. Thus we answer an inquiry after the number and sex of the children that a man has with the words : Er hat *drei' To'chter*.

52. Sentence Accent affected by the Tempo. Aside from the points mentioned above, there are other factors which influence the accent. Among these the tempo plays an important rôle. As the movement in the sentence increases in speed, the number of accents decreases, and their intensity becomes greater. Also at the beginning and end of a sentence or before a pause the accent becomes more pronounced.

PITCH, OR TONE.

53. The pitch in a foreign language is one of the most subtle of things, but in English and German, so closely related by a common origin, pitch is for the most part the same.

USE OF CAPITAL LETTERS.

54. The use of capital letters in German differs from the English in several points. The following are begun with a capital :

1. Every complete sentence in prose, and in poetry every verse.

2. Every direct quotation : Der Bettelsack sagt nie : „Ich habe genug.“

3. Every noun and any word used as a noun, if it can take the definite article, an adjective, or any other modifying word before it : der Mann, der Alte, der Junge, but alt und jung *old and young*, because no article can stand before these words in this set expression ; das Weinen ; das trauliche Du ; Schönes, etwas Schönes.

a. Pronominal adjectives, indefinite pronouns and numerals, though often used substantively, are written with a small letter : mancher, niemand, man, einer, ein wenig, &c.

b. Also many nouns in certain set expressions, used adverbially, are written with a small letter : zu liebe tun ; zu statten kommen, von alters her, anfangs.

4. Adjectives and ordinals preceded by the article, when they stand after proper names, forming with the name the designation of one individual : Friedrich der Große or der Zweite.

5. Adjectives and possessives in titles : Seine Majestät ; das königliche Zollamt ; der Wirkliche Geheimrat ; die Norddeutsche Schulzeitung.

6. Certain pronouns in direct address, as explained in 138. 1, and also those referring to the speaker in the proclamations and words of emperors and kings. Also other pronouns, pronominal adjectives, and the numeral ein sometimes take a capital to indicate emphasis, but more commonly are written with a small letter or spaced, as ein. Differing from English, the pronoun of the first person, ich *I*, is written with a small letter, unless it begins a sentence or direct quotation.

7. Adjectives in 'sch derived from names of persons and those in -er from names of places : die Grimmschen or Grimm'schen Märchen ; der Kölner (sometimes also köln) Dom.

a. But adjectives made from proper names, whether of persons, peoples, or countries, are written with a small letter when used, not with reference to one person or thing, but in a general universal sense : die luther'sche Kirche ; römisch, preußisch, kölnisch, &c.

8. Usually only the first element of compound nouns is written

with a capital, but sometimes other elements take a capital, especially in the following cases: (1) When a misunderstanding might arise from the use of small characters: *Erδ-Rücken* to keep it from being confounded with *Erδbrücken*; *der δ-Laut*, &c. (2) Proper names and adjectives: *Schleswig-Holstein*, *Kaiser-Wilhelms-Land*, *Niederschlesisch-Märkische Eisenbahn*. (3) The last component element in long compounds: *Dampfschiffahrts-Gesellschaft*, *Appellationsgerichts-Präsident*. (4) Common class nouns in a loose compound (see 249. II. 2): *das In-die-Höhe-kommen*. Usage differs much here, some writing also common nouns with small letters: *das Imamtbleiben*. Notice that in the above cases a hyphen (=) must be used when the second element has a capital.

APOSTROPHE.

55. An apostrophe is used as in English to indicate that a sound which can be pronounced is suppressed: *wen'ge* for *wenige*; *er redet'* for *redete*.

The exceptions are as follows:

1. An apostrophe is not used in the common contractions of the article with a previous preposition: *am*, *anδ*, &c. for *an dem*, *an das*, &c.

2. It is not now usual to place an apostrophe before *δ* in the gen.: *Schillersδ*, *Goethesδ*, &c. Older usage: *Schiller'sδ*, &c.

3. If a proper name ends in a sibilant *δ*, *ß*, *ß*, &c., no additional *δ* is required in the gen., but the apostrophe is usually employed here to indicate the case: *Wof'* (now also *Wof'sδ*) *Luiße*.

PART II

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

THEIR GRAMMATICAL FORMS, USE, NATURE.

PRELIMINARY.

Number, Case, Gender.

56. a. THERE are in German two numbers, the singular and plural.

b. There are four cases : the *nominative*, the case of the subject and direct address as in English ; the *genitive*, corresponding to the English possessive and also objective after the preposition *of* when it depends upon a noun or adjective, as in 'a man *of* honor,' 'conscious *of* guilt ;' the *dative*, corresponding to the English indirect object of a verb and direct object after certain prepositions (see list in 227) ; the *accusative*, corresponding to the direct object of a verb and direct object after certain prepositions (see list in 227).

c. There are three genders, *masculine*, *feminine*, and *neuter*. The general rule for the gender of nouns denoting living beings is that the noun is masculine or feminine according to the natural sex of the object represented by it, but there are many exceptions to the rule. The gender of nouns denoting things destitute of sex is not always neuter as in English, but is masc., fem., or neut., regulated in part by the meaning or the form of the word. Some rules for gender are given in 98 and 99, but in general the gender of each word must be learned, as there is much irregularity. The gender of the noun is usually indicated by the form of the preceding article or other modifying word.

INFLECTION OF THE ARTICLES.

DEFINITE ARTICLE.

57. A. The *definite* article has in the development of the language become ever more and more a necessary accompaniment of the noun, so that it now fairly deserves its name (article, from Lat. *articulus joint*). The article stands immediately before the name, and thus not only indicates its gender, but also, as it is richer in forms than the substantive, marks its case more distinctly.

SINGULAR.				PLURAL.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	M., F., and N. alike.	
Nom. . .	der	die	das	...	die <i>the</i> .
Gen. . .	des	der	des	...	der <i>of the</i> .
Dat. . .	dem	der	dem	...	den <i>to (or for) the</i> .
Acc. . .	den	die	das	...	die <i>the</i> .

B. The definite article is an enclitic, i.e. it leans upon a preceding word, the voice passing rapidly over it, as if it were a part of the preceding word. For this reason the article suffers many contractions with a preceding preposition or other word, especially the contraction of *dem* (neut. and masc. dat.) and *daß* (acc.) with a preceding monosyllabic preposition. *Zur* for *zu der* is the only fem. contraction allowed. The more common contractions are *am*, *anß*, *aufß*, *beim*, *fürß*, *im*, *inß*, *vom*, *zum*, for *an dem*, *an daß*, *auf daß*, *bei dem*, *für daß*, *in dem*, *in daß*, *von dem*, *zu dem*; sometimes in the familiar language of every day: *aufm*, *hinterm*, *gegenß*, *übern*, &c., for *auf dem*, *hinter dem*, *gegen daß*, *über den*, &c. In the spoken language contraction with a preceding verb is also very common: *Er hat's* (*hat daß*) *große Loß* *gewonnen*.

a. In the classics we find the contractions *zum* for *zu den* (dat. pl.), *an* (pronounce *an'n*) for *an den* (acc. sing. masc. and dat. pl.), and *in* (= *in'n*) for *in den* (acc. sing. masc. and dat. pl.), which have since disappeared from the literary language: *vom Kopf bis zum Füßen* (Schiller's *Räuber*, 2, 3). *Ihr werft sie dem Feind an Kopf* (Goethe's *Götz*, 1, 2). *Und setz' dich in Sessel!* (ib., *Faust*, 1. 2428). *Er fabelte gewiß in letzten Zügen* (ib., 1. 2962). Such contractions can still be heard in colloquial and popular language.

b. Contraction is the rule in all the above cases in the numerous *set phrases* where the article loses its demonstrative (see D) force entirely, and hence its importance, pointing to no concrete object in particular which thus needs to be pointed out or described, in order to be identified, but to one which has taken on abstract and general force: *Er schlug die Gegner auf's Haupt* He defeated his opponents (lit. hit them upon the head). *Er faßte ihn scharf ins Auge* He looked at him sharply. *Er geht zur Schule* (no reference to a particular school, but, in general, to the place where one learns).

Outside of these set expressions the article is also, on the same general principle, very often contracted when it has no demonstrative force, especially in familiar language where the relations of the persons and objects to each other are perfectly clear and need not be pointed out. However, when the least demonstrative force enters into the article, it cannot be contracted, especially in choice language: *Ich habe im guten Glauben gehandelt* *I acted in good faith*, but *Ich habe in dem guten Glauben gehandelt, daß ich in meinem Rechte wäre*.

c. Instead of being contracted the article is sometimes lengthened. The lengthened gen. and dat. forms *derer* (for *der*) and *denen* (for *den*) are found more or less frequently up to the beginning of the nineteenth century: *die Befolgung derer Gesetze* (Klopstock). *Vielleicht daß Gott denen Großen die Augen aufthut* (Goethe).

C. The definite article is also a proclitic (i.e. leans upon the following word), the voice passing rapidly over it and resting upon the next word: *Der Mensch ist sterblich*. Hence the article is often contracted or written as a part of the following word: *'s Morgens* = *des Morgens* *of mornings*, *derselbe* *the same*. The article is a proclitic or enclitic according as it precedes or follows a stronger accent to which it naturally attaches itself.

D. The definite article is in fact only the unaccented and shorter form of the demonstrative pronoun *der* *that* (see 120. 1), and still, though in greatly reduced degree, retains its demonstrative force. Owing to its enclitic nature the pronunciation of the def. article differs according to circumstances just as the English *the*, though

always more or less short and obscure, thus differing from the demon. pronoun *der*, which has a strong accent.

INDEFINITE ARTICLE.

58. A. Its declension is as follows:

	SINGULAR.					PLURAL.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.			M., F., and N.
Nom. . .	ein	eine	ein	<i>a</i>	...	meine <i>my</i>
Gen. . .	eines	einer	eines	<i>of a</i>	...	meiner <i>of my</i>
Dat. . .	einem	einer	einem	<i>to (for) a</i>	...	meinen <i>to (for) my</i>
Acc. . .	einen	eine	ein	<i>a</i>	...	meine <i>my</i>

B. Of course there can be no plural of *ein*, but as all the other words declined like *ein* have a plural, *mein* is declined as a model for the whole group in the plural. The words declined like *ein* are: *fein no* and all the possessives, *mein my*, *unser our*, *dein thy*, *euer your*, *sein his, its*, *ihr her*, *ihr their*. Notice that this group *has no ending to show gender in nom. sing. of the masc. and nom. and acc. sing. of the neut.* Of these words *ein* is the only one that is an enclitic, and hence is the only one that can suffer apheresis (see *b*).

a. The indefinite article like the definite is an enclitic, being the unaccented form of the accented numeral adjective *ein one*, which is sometimes distinguished from the indef. article by being written with a capital or, more commonly, spaced letters: *Ein, ein*.

b. Owing to its enclitic nature the indef. article suffers apheresis with the preceding word, forming in the familiar language of every day a complete enclitic declension as follows:

SINGULAR.			
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. . . .	'n	'ne	'n
Gen. . . .	'nes	'ner	'nes
Dat. . . .	'nem (or 'm)	'ner	'nem (or 'm)
Acc. . . .	'nen or 'n (=n'n)	'ne	'n

Example: *Es war 'ne fürchtbare Zeit* (M. Dreyer's *Drei*, 1).

c. This group of words had in early N.H.G. other abbreviated forms, as *eins* (nom. and acc. neut. and gen. masc. and neut.) for *eines*, *ein* or *em* for *einem*, *eint* or *ein'* for *einen*, &c. These forms are often found in the language of Luther and occasionally in the works of Goethe: *Es ist besser wonen im wüsten Lande | Denn bey ein zensischen vnd zornigen Weibe* (Proverbs 21. 19). *Mit ein leiblich Geld* (Goethe's *Urfaust*, l. 258). *Wenn ich so saß bei 'em Gelag* (ib., l. 1372). Of these contractions only substantive forms in the nom. and acc. neut. sing. remain in the literary language; see 106. Note 2. In the careless spoken language of every-day life, however, these contractions still continue to take place: *Mit ein Mal?* (M. Dreyer's *In Behandlung*, 1.) In the same manner we find earlier in the period contracted forms of the other words inflected like *ein*, namely, *fein* and the possessive adjectives, and in poetry and popular language such contractions still appear: *König Eifrid liegt in sein roten Blute!* (Uhland's *Die drei Lieder*).

d. In more choice language the indefinite article is pronounced in full, but with weak accent.

USE OF THE ARTICLES.

I. GENERAL STATEMENT.

59. A. The indefinite article *ein a*, in form the unaccented numeral *Ein one*, true to its origin singles out one object, action, or quality

from among a number. It designates an individual object in different ways :

a. It points to a person or thing without fixing its identity : Ein Kind begegnete uns. Ich habe einen Schmidt gekannt I knew a man by the name of Schmidt. Ein Buch liegt auf dem Tisch. If the individual introduced by the indefinite article is afterwards referred to, it is designated by the definite article, since it is considered as known : Es war einmal ein König. Der König hatte kein Kind.

b. In its more indefinite sense, ein is equal to irgend ein *any*, designating no individual in particular : Nie ist ein Kaiser so reich gewesen.

B. The definite article *der the*, in form the unaccented demonstrative *der that*, true to its origin, points out a definite object or thing, not directly by a gesture, as the demon. *der*, but by implication, referring to a person or thing which has already been brought before the mind by previous mention, or which is clearly indicated by the context : Trudchen hatte eine arme Mutter. Aber die Mutter war sehr fromm und gottesfürchtig. Der jetzige Kaiser von Deutschland. Das Buch auf dem Tische.

C. Both articles are used in a generalizing sense with much the same force, the indefinite to single out of a class *one* individual to serve by way of comparison or contrast as a representative of its class, the definite article also before a substantive in the singular to point out an individual as a fit representative of its class or genus in all its entirety or all its characteristic features : Ein Mensch ist in seinem Leben wie Gras As for man his days are as grass. Ein Dieb ist furchtsam, ein Löwe stark. Für einen Knaben stirbt | ein Posa (*a man like Posa*) nicht (Schiller's *Don Carlos*, 5, 9). Der Mensch ist sterblich. Der Mensch soll nicht stolz sein. Du bist doch die geborene alte Jungfer (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. i) You are, indeed, a regular old maid. Das ist die reine Lüge That is a downright lie. The plural of the article is also used : Beide waren ja noch die reinen Kinder (R. Voss's *Psyche*, XIII) Both were still mere children.

D. Omission of Article. Proper names do not usually take an article, as the name itself points out clearly the object in question ; and, on the other hand, there can be no article in many cases before the names of materials and abstract nouns, as these substantives do not suggest *definite* objects or things, but only *general* ideas. Also words which in the sing. usually require the article often drop it in the *plural* for the same reason, namely, because the reference is not to definite individuals but only in a general way to a class or indefinite number : Kinder und Narren sagen die Wahrheit. In all these cases when the reference becomes a definite one the article must stand.

E. Nouns which do not usually take an article require it at once when they become modified by an adjective, a genitive, a phrase, or relative clause, provided the modifier thus with the aid of the article marks the noun as a definite and distinct thing : Friedrich Frederic, but der große Friedrich Frederic the Great ; feines Weizenmehl fine wheat flour (indefinite), das feinste Weizenmehl zu dem billigsten Preise

the finest wheat flour at the lowest market price (the superl. in both cases with the art. as a definite quality and price are stated), but *feinstes Weizenmehl zu billigstem Preise* very fine flour at a very low price (not entirely definite); in *hohem Alter* at an advanced age (indefinite), but in *hohen Alter von 78 Jahren* (definite); *Gott sei Dank!* thanks be to God! but *dem Gotte Israels* to the God of Israel. *Der Gott, der Eisen wachsen ließ, der wollte keine Knechte* (Arndt's *Vaterlandslied*).

F. The article must sometimes be used on merely formal grounds to make clear the case: *Er zieht den Rosen Nellen vor*, but when the substantive clearly shows the case, the article in such instances drops out, as the reference is an indefinite one: *Er zieht Äpfeln Pfirsiche vor*. The use of the articles is especially frequent before names of persons to bring out clearly the case: *Ich ziehe Homer dem Virgil vor*.

II. DETAILED STATEMENT OF THE USES OF THE ARTICLES.

A. Common class nouns take the article both in the sing. and pl., when they are the names of definite objects, or stand as representatives of their class or genus, but drop it in all cases where they express an indefinite number or an abstract, general idea: *Die Blätter sind der Schmuck der Bäume*, but *Der Baum treibt Blätter*. *Das Buch auf dem Tisch*, but *Jeder Kaufmann muß gehörig Buch führen* Every merchant must keep his book account (no definite book, but his accounts in general) properly. *Das ist der Welt Lauf* *That is the way of the world*, but *Aus jedem ihrer Worte sprach die Dame von Welt* *From every word that she spoke it was clear that she was a lady familiar with the ways of POLITE SOCIETY* (= Welt, here used in its abstract application). *Der Mensch ist sterblich* *Man* (as the representative of his race) *is mortal*, but *Mensch sein heißt Kämpfer sein* *To be a man* (here = *alive to all that is of human interest*) *means to be a fighter in life's battles*. In the last sentence *Mensch* neither refers to a definite individual nor does it picture a man as the representative of the race, but is used in a general abstract sense almost with the force of a predicate adjective; see III. a.

a. If a genitive precedes its governing noun, the latter must drop the article, as the genitive points out definitely the particular object, and hence must itself require the article: *Der Herr des Hauses*, or *des Hauses Herr*.

Note. In an earlier period the article was not required before the gen. which preceded its governing noun, and many survivals of this construction occur in the form of compound nouns: *Manneswort* *the word of a man*, *Freundesherz* *the heart of a friend*, *Menschenherz* *the human heart*, and thus also many fem. compounds ending in *en*, the old weak gen. form for the singular as well as the plural (see 70. II. 1): *Frauenstimme* *the voice of a woman*, *eine Mahnung aus Frauenmund* *an exhortation from the mouth of a woman*, &c.

b. The definite article stands very frequently for a possessive adjective when no ambiguity could thus arise, especially before parts of the body or articles of clothing, often accompanied by the dat. of the pronoun or noun referring to the person affected: *Der Kopf tut mir so weh* *My head aches so badly*. *Man nahm den Besiegten die Waffen ab*. *Er steckt die Nase in alles*. *Er schloß ihm die Augen* *He closed his (a friend's) eyes*. *Er schloß die Augen* *He closed his (own) eyes*. *Er verlor das Leben*. *Er kam herein mit dem Hut in der Hand*. *Er rieb sich die Augen*.

c. In a distributive sense the definite article in German often corresponds to the English indefinite *a* (in 2nd example not the indef. art. *a*, but a form of the prep. *on*): *Dieses Tuch kostet 90 Pfennig(e)* *die Elle* *This cloth costs 90 pfennigs a yard*. *Fünfmal das Jahr* *five times a year*.

d. A title in the form of an attributive gen. takes the indef. art. in German, while in English no article at all is used: Wilhelm I. nahm den Titel eines Kaisers an William I. accepted the title of emperor.

e. The indefinite article in German is used in many idiomatic expressions: ein jeder or ein jeglicher each, everybody, ein solcher (Mann, &c.) such a (man, &c.), so ein (großes Land), or ein so (großes Land) such a (large country), &c.

B. Collective nouns are treated as common class nouns, the article being used if the reference is to the entire body, but dropped when the reference is to an indefinite portion: Nach dem Treffen erschien das Pappenheimsche Fußvolk *After the engagement Pappenheim's infantry came up*, but Es erschien Pappenheimsches Fußvolk *Some of Pappenheim's infantry came up*. Notice the use of the article in das Parlament parliament, der Kongreß congress, &c., where in English the article is usually dropped.

C. Names of materials usually have no article, from the idea of an indefinite mass which is usually connected with their use, but take an article like any common class noun when they denote (1) a definite portion, or (2) variety of the material, or (3) when they represent the material in all its entirety in contradistinction to other materials: feines Gold fine gold, grünes Holz green wood. Kohlenstaub deckt Weg und Gras. Trinken Sie Tee oder Kaffee? But: ein (or das) Glas a glass (drinking utensil), ein (or das) Tuch a shawl, ein Stein a stone, ein Eisen horse-shoe, die ungarischen Weine the different sorts of wine from Hungary. Das Gold ist das kostbarste Metall.

a. The indefinite article is often placed directly before a noun indicating a food or drink, where in English such nouns are commonly preceded by some other noun or an indefinite pronominal adjective indicating the usual amount of the substance served at one time to one person, or the usual amount prepared at one time in one mass: eine Suppe a dish of soup, ein Butterbrot a piece of bread and butter, eine Kartoffel some potatoes, a dish of potatoes, ein Bier a glass of beer, ein Bitterer a glass of bitters, ein Brot a loaf of bread. Meine Frau bringt mir einen Kaffee mit einem Rum My wife is bringing me a cup of coffee with rum. Mylord bereitet sich einen Tee My lord made some tea for himself.

D. Abstract nouns do not take an article when the idea of amount, extent, degree, or kind of the quality, condition, or activity is defined in only a general way, but they at once demand an article or a pronominal adjective when the idea is individualized, that is, when the extent or kind becomes definite, or the attention is directed to some particular case or cases, or when the abstract noun is used in the sing. to represent the idea in all its entirety, in its widest sense, and not as limited to one individual case or several: Der Mensch muß Ruhm und Ladel ertragen lernen Man must learn to bear both praise and censure. Glück macht Mut. Er trägt alles mit Geduld. Ich fange nur mit freier Hand, aber Gelenkigkeit gehört dazu I catch fish with my hands, but it takes some skill. Der Alte verfant in Nachsinnen. Sammern ist unnütz. But: Ich finde dazu die Zeit nicht I have not the time (for this particular task). Eine Geduld, welche nichts erschüttern kann; der Friede der Seele, die Liebe Gottes. Solche Ungerechtigkeiten sind unerhört. Das Sammern ist unnütz Your lamenting will do no good. Die Zeit ist flüchtig Time always speeds along. Er war ganz liebevoller Sohn, die Rücksicht und Ehrerbietung selbst He was quite an affectionate son, *the very personification of consideration and respect*. Die Ungerechtigkeit straft sich selbst. Ist denn das die Möglichkeit? Is it possible, within the range of the possible?! or in shorter, weaker form: Ist's die Möglichkeit? You don't say so!

E. The names of persons in general need no article, as the name itself indicates with sufficient clearness the individual; but as, on the one hand, a proper name needs at times to be pointed out more definitely to distinguish it from others of the same name, and on the other hand it may be used as a common noun, the article is often for these reasons and others found before it, especially in the following cases:

a. When the reference is to a person already mentioned, or one that is explicitly designated by some adjective modifier, or in familiar language one not designated by any modifier, as it is supposed that he is a party *well known* to the person in question: Das ist der Karl That is Carl (of whom we were speaking). Friedrich der Große, or der große Friedrich, der dicke Wilhelm, der alte Herr Schmidt. Wenn die Kinder ihn nur von weitem sahen, so riefen sie schon: Mutter, der Brezelsasper kommt! Whenever the children saw him even afar off, they cried out: Mother, Jasper the brezel-seller is coming! Mit dem Theodor will ich gar nicht mehr umgehen. Ich mag und will's nicht glauben, daß mich der Max verlassen kann. In familiar language the definite article sometimes takes the place of Herr *Mr.* and Frau *Mrs.* or Fräulein *Miss* before surnames, when the persons spoken of are well known to persons addressed and need not be described: Der Schmidt or Herr Schmidt, die Schmidt or Frau Schmidt. It is quite common to use the article before the names of celebrated persons: die Marlitt, die Ebner (Frau Baronin Marie von Ebner-Eschenbach), die Elliot, &c.; der Bismarck, &c.

Note. The definite article before names of persons and animals is more common in the spoken than written language, and very much more common in the South than in the North: der Karl instead of Karl, der Pluto (name of a dog). In the North, on the contrary, the custom of using proper nouns without the article is extended to common class nouns when used as familiar names just as in English: Mutter's Kleid mother's dress; see 90. In the South the article always stands in such cases.

b. In direct address the name or title is usually of itself definite enough, and hence is without article: Otto, tue das nicht! Thus also in letters: Teuerste Luise! Geehrter Herr! Lieber (or Liebster) Schmidt! My dear friend Schmidt. In conversation the manner of address is as in English: Herr Schmidt Mr. S., Frau Schmidt Mrs. S., Fräulein Schmidt Miss S., &c. Boys are addressed by their Christian name for short, and men in familiar language call each other by their surnames, or -chen is added to the surname, as Stengelschen my dear Stengel. In deferential language the third person is often used instead of the second, and then the article is used, or sometimes after the analogy of the direct form omitted (for number of the verb see 253. I. 1. a): Der Herr Hauptmann wird gewiß die Güte haben, &c., Captain, you will certainly be so kind, &c. Ach, Fräulein sind so gut! O, Miss, you are so good!

In accordance with older usage we sometimes hear in provincial language the article in direct address: Guten Abend, die Herren! Good evening, gentlemen.

c. Also titles in the third person which precede names of individuals, whether persons or things, usually have no article, as they are felt as a part of the name: Professor Müller Professor Müller, Herr Schmidt Mr. Schmidt, König Wilhelm, Schloß Walferdingen Castle Walferdingen. In an earlier period the omission of the article here was not so common, and still usage fluctuates in certain cases. In the nom. the omission of the article is decidedly more common than its retention, and also common in the acc., but not so much so as in the nom.; in the gen. the article is retained if the gen. follows the governing substantive, but is dropped if the governing noun follows: Advokat Müller hat eine große Praxis. Ich habe das Vergnügen, Herrn Doktor Wespe zu sprechen? Have I the honor of addressing Dr. Wespe? Die Praxis des Advokaten Müller, but Advokat Müllers Praxis. The omission of the article is here not common in the dat. except after prepositions, where the title sometimes has the article and sometimes drops it: Die italienischen Truppen unter Oberst Arimandi. Der König und die Königin von Schweden und Norwegen nebst dem Prinzen Eugen. In all the above cases when the title is felt in its full force and not as a part of the usual name the article must be used. In the plural also such titles naturally take the article, as they are

felt in their full force: Doktor B. meint *Doctor B. thinks, &c.*, but die Doktoren B. und D. meinen *Doctors B. and D. think, &c.*

d. Aside from the previous logical reasons, the article is also often used on formal grounds to distinguish the different cases. The article is much more frequently used in the gen., dat., and acc. than in the nom., and is avoided also in the dat. and acc. if the colloquial weak ending *-en* be used: Die Werke des Paritales, but where an *s* can be easily added die Werke Schinkels. Karl sagt es dem Fritz or sagt es Fritz. Karl lobt den Fritz or lobt Fritz. Also in case of a preceding title which usually has no article or inflection, being felt as one with the name, the article must stand if the name itself resists inflection by reason of its sibilant ending, and the case relation is not otherwise made clear: das Leben Kaiser Wilhelms I., but das Leben des Kaisers Tiberius. But occasionally the title is inflected, but is without the art.; see 92. I. a.

e. Proper names of course take an article when they are used as common nouns. This is the case when a proper name, which has become noted for some one thing, is applied to any individual who has distinguished himself similarly, or when by way of metonymy the name of an individual is applied to one of his works or creations, or a work of art is named from the person it represents: Wilhelm der Stille weicht sich, ein zweiter Brutus, dem großen Anliegen der Freiheit. Die Gottsched sind zahlreicher als die Goethe Men like Gottsched are more numerous than those like Goethe. In Tertia lesen die Schüler den Dvid. Ich habe den Goethe I have the works of Goethe. Ich bringe ihr den Homer I'll bring her a copy of Homer's poems. Der Raphael in der Dresdner Gallerie the painting by Raphael in the Dresden gallery, der kleine Sanders the smaller edition of Sanders' German dictionary, der Herkules the statue of Hercules, der Faust (play named from its leading character). On the contrary, however, the article is sometimes dropped after the analogy of proper nouns in general: Und hier habe ich Gerok — Palmblätter (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, 2, p. 47) And here I have Gerok, namely his *Palmblätter*.

f. A proper name takes the article as any common class noun when the reference is to one, a definite group, or the entire number of individuals who have the same origin, and hence a name in common: ein Bourbon a Bourbon, die Bourbonen the Bourbons. This is the rule in case of illustrious or well-known houses, but in case of private families the article is more commonly omitted: Brauns sind nicht reich The Browns are not rich. Illustrious names must of course drop the article when they are used partitively: Die deutschen Kaiser des achtzehnten Jahrhunderts waren Habsburger.

g. Also things as well as persons may take names to distinguish them from others of their class, especially planets, ships, newspapers, hotels, usually with the article: der Mars, der Jupiter, die Vistoria (name of a ship), der Polarstern Polar Star (ship), der Coriolan (newspaper), die Union (newspaper), im Blauen Stern at the Blue Star (hotel).

Note. In the marine news of North German newspapers it is quite common to drop the article before names of ships, thus treating them like names of persons: Hannover (ship) ist gestern Kap Henry passiert (*Hamburgischer Correspondent*, 30. Mai, 1901).

F. Geographical names fall into two distinct classes, one with the article, the other without it:

1. The names of the natural divisions of the earth's surface, such as rivers, lakes, seas, oceans, mountains, forests, peninsulas, groups of islands, &c., except the names of individual islands and the names of continents, take the article, as they were originally common class nouns, or are designations of familiar objects (see E. a, above): der Rhein (Gallic *Rēnos river*) the Rhine, die Saazach (sch related to Latin *aqua water*) tributary of the Inn, der Brocken or Bloßberg (peak in the Harz Mts.), das Matterhorn (Mt.),

der Grunewald (forest near Berlin), der Peloponnes the Peloponnesus, die Cys-
kladen the Cyclades, but Kreta Crete, Europa Europe, &c.

2. The neut. names of the political divisions of the earth, such as cities, countries, and minor divisions of countries, usually have no article when they are unmodified, but require it when modified by an adjective, a gen., or a relative clause: Berlin Berlin, Deutschland Germany, but das schöne Deutschland beautiful Germany, &c. Many names of places had an article in an older period, as they were originally common class nouns, or had for their final element a common class noun; see 88. 1. In most cases all feeling for the origin of such words is lost, but a few groups of words and a few isolated names still retain the article in accordance with older usage:

a. Only one town or city, der Haag The Hague (lit. the forest), takes the article.

b. All feminine and masculine names of countries and districts take the article: a number of fem. in *-ei* or *-ie*, as die Lombardei Lombardy (i.e. land of the Lombards), die Normandie Normandy (i.e. land of the Normans); some fem. in *-au*, as die Moldau Moldavia; fem. in *-mark* *mark*, as die Altmark; a few isolated fem., as die Schweiz Switzerland, die Pfalz the Palatinate, die Lausitz Lusatia, die Levante the Levant, die Bretagne Brittany, &c.; masc. in *-gau* *district*, which are also sometimes neut. in accordance with the earlier gender of the word, as der (das) Rheingau; der or more commonly das Elsaß Alsace.

Note. The poet sometimes takes liberties with these words and drops the article, thus vividly treating them as real proper nouns instead of common nouns according to their origin: Weil wir es satt sind, daß Mark Brandenburg jedem geldgier'gen Schuft aus Böhmerland verschachert wird (Wildenbruch's *Die Quiltows*, 2).

c. Neuter names of places quite uniformly are used without the article, except the few in *b* and those in *-land*, where the *-land* is felt in some cases as a common noun, and thus requires the article, or in most cases drops it in accordance with the general rule that neuter names do not take the article: im Hessenland(e) or in Hessenland in Hesse (lit. land of the Hessians), das Vogtland section in Saxony (lit. land under a governor), once a bulwark against the Slavs, das Wenland section in Hanover, originally *land of the Wends*, die Niederlande the Netherlands, &c., but Deutschland Germany, Grömland and Samland sections in Prussia along the Baltic, &c.

G. The names of streets, squares, and city-wards naturally take the article, as the final component element is a common noun: die Friedrichsstraße, der Schillerplatz Schiller Square, das Spandauerviertel (part of Berlin). In adverbial expressions indicating street and number the article is often omitted: Wo wohnst du? Halldorfsstraße fünfzehn.

H. The names of the seasons, months (see also 94. 3. A. *b*), days, parts of the day, and the meals require the article except in a few set expressions: im Sommer, zu Anfang des August, am Sonntag. Der Morgen graut. Ist das Frühstück fertig?

I. A difference of conception in some cases leads to a different use of the article in the two languages. The German sometimes uses the article to indicate that a word stands for a collective idea, conceived of in its entire range, or for a definite thing, while in English it is omitted, as some other point of view is taken: das Altertum antiquity, das Christentum Christianity, das Elysium elysium, die Ehe matrimony, das Glück fortune, der Himmel heaven, die Hölle hell, die Nachwelt posterity, die Natur nature, das Paradies paradise, das Schicksal destiny, der Tod death, die Vorsehung providence, &c. On the other hand the article is often dropped in German even though used in English, to indicate that the thing or idea is not conceived of with a definite extent or intensity: Ich habe Kopfschmerz I have a headache. Er hat Familie He has a family.

III. OMISSION OF THE ARTICLE.

The article in general is omitted: (1) when the noun does not designate a definite object; (2) when, as in case of proper nouns and direct address, the object is already sufficiently defined; and (3) in many set expressions and proverbs coined in an earlier period when the article was little used.

The article is omitted in the following common cases:

a. In the predicate when the noun does not designate a definite individual but something abstract, such as a quality, relation, condition, calling, or capacity of any kind, moreover, any fact or idea in a broad general sense, also indefinite time: *Der Mensch ist ein Gott, sobald er Mensch ist* Man is a god when he is humane. *Ich bin Partei* I am biased. *Ich bin Braut* I am betrothed. *Er wurde preussischer Untertan.* Sie ist noch Kind. *Im Grunewald* (forest near Berlin) ist Holzauktion. *Er ist Baumeister.* Er kam als Retter in der Not. *Die Überproduktion an Staatsnoten ist gewöhnlich Folge eines Krieges.* Es war Wohnzimmer des Hauses. Es wurde Abend. Es wurde Winter. Sometimes the predicate substantive assumes almost pure adjective force and can be modified by an adverb: *Ich bin nicht Kenner genug* (adv.). Of course, however, the slightest approach to definiteness calls for the article: *Das ist der Baumeister* That is the architect (of whom we were just talking).

Note. This omission of the article in the predicate is especially frequent in appositional and parenthetical phrases, which are often contracted clauses in which the appositional substantive is the real predicate, and hence the omission of the article is natural, but the omission often thus occurs even when in a complete sentence the same word in the predicate would require the article: *Als Anfänger* (= *Obgleich er Anfänger ist*) behandelt er die Sache doch mit Meisterschaft. *Ich Esel, dreifacher Esel* verschärfe auf diese Weise meinen Freund, but *Ich bin ein Esel.* Unter der Regierung des Königs Siegmund, Sohn des deutschen Kaisers Karls IV (*National-Zeitung*). *Ich* schreibe Ihnen in Aix (ehemalige Hauptstadt der Provinz).

b. If a genitive precedes its governing noun, the latter must drop its article; see II. A. a.

c. The article is often dropped when a singular noun is used by way of synecdoche, to designate more than one or a regular succession: *Er trug sie mit starkem Arm.* In tiefem Tal, auf schneebedeckten Höhen war stets dein Bild mir nah. Mit scharfem Schritt with a quick step.

d. In prepositional phrases the indefinite article can be omitted when the reference is evidently to only *one* object: ein Gebäude mit flachem Dach. Ein auf bewaldetem Berge liegendes Schloß. Auf hagerem Halse hob sich ein blaßes vergilbtes Frauenantlitz.

e. The article is dropped before a noun as in English when it introduces a formal definition of itself: *Kunst ist* (or *heißt*) *die Darstellung des Schönen.*

f. The article is dropped before a noun which does not represent a definite object or thing but is used in a broad, general sense: *Blutigel ist Blutigel* A leech is a leech wherever you find it. *Ende gut, alles gut* If the end is good, all is good. The article is absent thus in many pithy sayings which date back to a time when the article was little used, and thus bear the stamp of an earlier coinage.

The article is frequently omitted before the absolute superlative to express a high degree in a general way without reference to any particular comparison: *Einfachste, tiefste Harmonie ist im Sturm, wie in der Windstille* (Raabe). *Auf sadeste Dummköpfe machte er Eindruck, auf Arnold nicht* (G. Hauptmann).

g. The article is dropped in an enumeration of things or particulars belonging to the same class or category, but must stand before each noun if they are considered individually rather than as belonging to one class: *Bei der Ausfüllung der Frachtbrieft rubrik „Art der Verpackung“ hat der Versender einen*

möglichst bezeichnenden Ausdruck (Faß, Saß, Kiste, Kasten, Ballen u. dgl.) zu wählen. Die falsche, aber bisher landläufige Ansicht, daß Rhein, Neuß, Rhône und Lessin am St. Gotthard entspringen, gab auch zu einer irrigen Auffassung der Straßenverhältnisse Anlaß. Herr Schreiber Witthoff, Kopfmartelcke, Hinterhaus, vierte Etage links. Zürich am Ausfluß der Limmas aus dem Züricher See, jetzt die vollreichste Stadt der Schweiz (90,000 E.), Mittelpunkt einer großartigen Industrie in Seide, Baumwolle, Maschinen u. a., bedeutender Handel, Eisenbahnknotenpunkt und lebhafter Fremdenverkehr. But the article is used in the following sentence, as the objects are considered individually: Da (unter dem Christbaume) lag ein braunes Müßchen, ein schwarzer Samthut, ein buntes Kleid, ein Märchenbuch, ein Bilderbuch, sechs Schreibbücher, Federn und Schiefertafeln, Strickgarn und auch eine wunderschöne Puppe.

h. Similar to the above is the very common use of dropping the article of each of a pair of words connected by *und*, or *weber* — *noch* *neither* — *nor*, *nicht* — *noch* *not* — *nor*, *nicht* — *oder* *not* — *or*: Tag und Nacht, Leib und Seele, Eingang zu Garten und Kegelbahn, der Blick des Pastors von Kanzel und Altar, auf Sofa und Stühlen, zwischen Friedrichsdenkmal und Brandenburger Thor. Da wächst *weber* Baum *noch* Strauch. In blinder Hast jagte Kaspar dahin, achtete *nicht* auf Stock *noch* Stein, *nicht* auf Baum *noch* Graben.

Note. This omission of the article is not limited to set expressions, as stated in some grammars, but is permissible before all words thus coupled together, except in the *gen.* case, where as yet the omission does not uniformly occur: Vater und Mutter sind heimgekehrt. Liebe Vater und Mutter. Gehorche Vater und Mutter, but Gedenke des Vaters und der Mutter. Trotz Sträubens und Stemmens.

i. The article is dropped before nouns which are used twice, once before and again after a prep.: Woge auf Woge, von Tag zu Tage, Schritt vor Schritt, &c.

j. The article is dropped in a very large number of set expressions coined in an earlier period, most of which have this in common—that they have a broad general meaning, and do not refer to definite objects or things. The following groups of expressions are thus used without the article, though in some cases the newer form with the article can also be found:

aa. The adverbial *gen.* of time, place, manner, condition: morgens oder des morgens of mornings, Sommers in the summer time, bei erster Gelegenheit, höheren Orts before a higher authority, flugs quickly, schlimmsten Falls if the worst happens, in the worst event, &c.

bb. The *acc.* as object of a verb, or the *dat.* or *acc.* after preps. in numerous set expressions in which the substantive does not retain its literal meaning, but enters into close relations with the verb, forming with the latter *one* idea, usually of a general or figurative application: reinen Mund halten to remain mum, Hand anlegen to put one's hand to, to go to work, teilnehmen to take part in; zu Verge fahren to ride up hill, or sail up stream, zu Kreuze liegen to become humbled; see 245. IV. 3. B.

cc. The *dat.* or *acc.* in numerous prep. phrases in which the substantive retains its separate meaning, independent of the verb, but has a general or indefinite application. The more common cases are the following:

(1) In general statements of time: vor Mittag before noon, nach Tisch after meal-time. Tag über all day, &c. Nach getaner Arbeit ist gut ruhn.

(2) In adverbial phrases of manner and reason: zu Fuß, zu Wasser gehen to go on foot, by water, &c.; vor Angst beben to tremble on account of anxiety, aus Liebe handeln to act prompted by love, &c.

k. The article is dropped before certain adjective-substantives, see 111. 7. *h.*

l. The indefinite article is not usually used before *hundert* hundred and *tausend* thousand: *hundert* Schüler one hundred pupils.

m. The article is dropped in short, concise commands or warnings: Augen links! Kopf zurück!

n. The article is often dropped before collective or abstract nouns and names of materials; see II. B, C, D.

Also any noun which usually has concrete meaning loses the article if it

assumes abstract meaning: Der Oberst hatte in seiner kurzen, etwas militärischen Art und Weise gesprochen, aus der jedoch Herz klang, das zum Herzen ging.

o. The article is almost always dropped before proper names in direct address, and as a rule elsewhere, but there are many exceptions, as enumerated in II. E and the sub-articles. Also the following points come under this head:

aa. In familiar language, titles and designations of relationship, and in poetry and folk-lore the names of familiar objects, may, in order to impart more vividly the idea of personality, be treated as proper names and thus drop the article (see II. E. *a. Note*, and 90): nach Hoheits Befehl according to the command of your Highness. Herrschafts sind heute ganz unter sich (words of a hired girl) My employer and his family are to-day entirely to themselves. Tanters Kleid Aunt's dress. Knabe sprach: ich beschte dich, Röslein sprach: ich steche dich (Goethe's *Heidenröslein*).

bb. In official language or a familiar style, definite persons or organizations are called not by their proper name but by some common noun that represents the capacity in which the person or thing appears. This common noun like a proper name drops the article: Beflagter trete vor Let the defendant step forth. Schreiber dieser Zeilen the writer of these lines. Verfasser the author, &c.

cc. Names of books, firms, and headings and addresses like proper names in general drop the article: Geschichte der Völkerwanderung History of the Migration of the Nations, Eisengießerei von R. W., Artikel bei Stoffnamen The Use of the Article before Names of Materials (heading of an article in a German Grammar). Mein Geschäft befindet sich S.W., Friedrichst. 160 My place of business is in the south-west part of the city, Frederic Street, No. 160.

INFLECTION OF COMMON NOUNS.

60. I. Nouns are divided into three declensions, the Strong, Weak, and Mixed. The different cases and numbers in all these declensions are formed by adding certain vowel or consonant endings to the stem of the noun and sometimes by modifying (indicated below by ") the stem vowel. The following is the general outline of the different systems of terminations and different methods of treating the stem vowel:—

STRONG.				WEAK.	MIXED.
Singular.				Singular.	Singular.
<i>First Class.</i>	<i>Second Class.</i>	<i>Third Class.</i>	<i>Fourth Class.</i>		
Nom. —	—	—	—	—(e)	—
Gen. —ß	—(e)ß	—(e)ß	—(e)ß	—(e)n	—(e)ß
Dat. —	—(e)	—(e)	—(e)	—(e)n	—(e)
Acc. —	—	—	—	—(e)n	—
Plural.				Plural.	Plural. 1st Cl. 2nd Cl.
Nom. ^(u)	—e	^(u) e	^(u) er	—(e)n	—(e)n —ß
Gen. ^(u)	—e	^(u) e	^(u) er	—(e)n	—(e)n —ß
Dat. ^(u) n	—en	^(u) en	^(u) ern	—(e)n	—(e)n —ß
Acc. ^(u)	—e	^(u) e	^(u) er	—(e)n	—(e)n —ß

The declensions are distinguished by the case ending in the gen. sing. and nom. pl.

A. The Strong declension has *s* or *es* in the gen. sing.: der Spaten spade, gen. des Spatens. It subdivides into four classes in the plural according to the formation of the nom. plural:

a. The First Class has no additional ending in the nom. pl., but sometimes modifies the root vowel: der Spaten, pl. die Spaten; der Vater father, pl. die Väter.

b. The Second Class adds *e* in the nom. pl. without modification of the root vowel: der Arm arm, pl. die Arme.

c. The Third Class adds *e* in the plural and modifies the root vowel: der Fuß foot, pl. die Füße.

d. The Fourth Class adds *er* to form nom. pl. and modifies the root vowel: das Buch book, pl. die Bücher.

B. The Weak declension has *n* or *en* in every case sing. and pl. except nom. sing.: der Knabe boy, gen. des Knaben, dat. dem Knaben, acc. den Knaben, pl. nom. die Knaben, &c.

C. The Mixed declension is *strong* (i. e. takes *s* or *es* in gen.) in the sing. and falls into two groups in the pl.

a. The first group takes the weak pl., i. e. ends in *n* or *en* throughout the pl.: der Staat state, gen. des Staat(e)s, pl. die Staaten.

b. The second group has the foreign ending *s* throughout the pl.: das Echo echo, gen. des Echo's, pl. die Echo's.

D. In any of these declensions where the case ending of the noun is deficient, the article (which is ever playing a more important rôle) marks distinctly the case: der Omnibus, des Omnibus, &c. See 2, below.

2. There is at present considerable confusion in German declension. The strong declension and the first class of the mixed are growing at the expense of the weak, and the strong declension itself is losing in many words its *s* of the genitive sing.: Es schien ihm (dem Chamäleon) zu gefallen auf den schwanken Ranken des Fien (*Über Land und Meer*). The grammarians severely condemn the suppression of *s* in such examples as the preceding, but in a number of categories this omission has been sanctioned by usage, as the feeling has prevailed that the article alone marks the case clearly; see 84, 85. a; 86. 1, and a; 86. 2. a and c; 92. 2. a. b; 78. In case of common nouns the *s* is most frequently suppressed when the word ends in an unaccented sibilant: des Globus (or Globusses); eines Jettisch (Fontane's *Unterm Birnbaum*, II) or Jettisches.

GENERAL RULES FOR ALL DECLENSIONS.

61. a. Feminine nouns never vary in the singular, the article or context alone showing case. Thus feminines belong to their respective classes and declensions only in the plural. Occasionally traces of inflection in the sing. can still be found, indicating a different state of things in earlier periods; see 76. II. 1.

b. Nouns ending in unaccented *ar*, *e*, *el*, *em*, *en*, *er*, *fen*, *il*, *ir*, *lein*, *fel*, *ul*, always lose the *e* of the case ending: der Flügel wing, gen. des

Flügel \mathfrak{s} , dat. pl. den Flügeln, not des Flügel \mathfrak{s} , den Flügeln; die Feder pen, pl. die Federn; der Un'gar Hungarian, pl. die Un'garn, but der Tartar' Tartar, pl. die Tartar'en.

c. The last noun of true compound substantives is alone declined, and also gives the gender to the compound. For loose compounds, see 80. 2.

STRONG DECLENSION.

General Rules.

62. A. In every strong masc. or neut. (for fem. see 61. a) noun the nom. and acc. sing. of the respective genders are the same, and in nouns of all genders the nom., gen., and acc. plural of the respective genders are alike, the accompanying article or adjective alone marking case relations.

B. Every strong noun ends in \mathfrak{en} or \mathfrak{n} (see 61. b) in the dat. pl.

C. The case ending \mathfrak{e} according to 61. b is dropped after the suffixes \mathfrak{e} , \mathfrak{el} , \mathfrak{em} , \mathfrak{en} , \mathfrak{er} , \mathfrak{chen} , \mathfrak{lein} , \mathfrak{sel} : der Engel angel, des Engel \mathfrak{s} (not Engel \mathfrak{s}), dem Engel (not Engle), &c. In case of those ending in \mathfrak{n} , no additional \mathfrak{n} is added in the dat. pl.: der Spaten spade, gen. des Spaten \mathfrak{s} , dat. pl. den Spaten; das Fräulein *young lady*, dat. pl. den Fräulein.

Note. The general rule of dropping \mathfrak{e} after the above-mentioned suffixes has been very effective since early M.H.G., and has produced marked results in the inflection of nouns; see 67. The cause of the dropping of \mathfrak{e} after these suffixes seems to be the pronounced tendency in words of more than two syllables to suppress a syllable in order to make an easy and rhythmical succession of accented and unaccented syllables. These unaccented suffixes follow an accented syllable, and if another unaccented syllable were formed by adding \mathfrak{e} the favorite rhythm would be disturbed. Thus the *trochaic word-foot* ($\text{—} \cup$) has gained a great victory over the *dactylic word-foot* ($\text{—} \cup \cup$).

D. The gen. sing. takes \mathfrak{es} when it ends in some sound difficult to unite with the \mathfrak{s} of the case ending without the aid of \mathfrak{e} , just as *es* in English is added to form the pl. when *s* alone would be difficult to pronounce: one glass, two glasses. Usually \mathfrak{es} stands after final \mathfrak{b} , \mathfrak{d} , \mathfrak{lb} , \mathfrak{nd} , \mathfrak{mpf} , \mathfrak{s} , $\mathfrak{ß}$, \mathfrak{ff} , \mathfrak{z} , \mathfrak{sch} , \mathfrak{st} , or after a final vowel or diphthong: der Fisch fish, des Fisch \mathfrak{s} ; der Bau building, des Bau \mathfrak{s} . In case of a final vowel or diphthong, even though in print the \mathfrak{e} (as in des Bau \mathfrak{s}) be suppressed, it is nevertheless slightly heard.

Also in other cases \mathfrak{es} is often used, particularly in choice language, but simple \mathfrak{s} is more common, and in familiar language even after some of the above-mentioned consonants. Simple \mathfrak{s} is used in the following cases: (1) Always in the First Class and also elsewhere in order to avoid a dactyl ($\text{—} \cup \cup$) or an antibacchius ($\text{—} \cup \text{—}$), that is, when the final syllable of the uninflected form of the word is unaccented or has only secondary accent: der Vogel, des Vogel \mathfrak{s} , not des Vögel \mathfrak{s} ; der Käfig cage, des Käfig \mathfrak{s} , not des Käf \mathfrak{i} g \mathfrak{s} ; des Hof \mathfrak{s} , but des Kirchhof \mathfrak{s} , not usually K \mathfrak{i} rchhof \mathfrak{s} ; der Vo'lmönd full moon, des Vo'lmönd \mathfrak{s} . (2) Also in the adverbial genitive: tag \mathfrak{s} drauf on the next day, hierort \mathfrak{s} at this place. (3) In proper names always, and if after sibilants simple \mathfrak{s} is here difficult to add, the genitive

may take *enß* or an apostrophe without an ending, or, in case of cities, the preposition *von* is usually placed before the name to show the genitive relation: *Englands, Marens* or *Mar'*, *die Straßen von Paris*; see 86. 2.

E. The dative sing. ending *ε* is now on the decline and confined largely to the choice language of painstaking speakers, but much disregarded in familiar language.

It is not usually found: (a) in the First Class: *mit dem Spaten*; (b) in the word *Gott God* when no article stands before it: *Gott sei Dank!*, but *dem Gotte Israels*; (c) in proper names: in *Frankreich* in France; (d) after an unaccented syllable when it would form a dactyl (— ∪ ∪) or antibacchius (— ∪ ∪): *mit dem Rō'nig, vor einem Rō'nāt*; (e) after words ending in a vowel: in *dem See*; (f) in the names of winds: *dem Nord* (but in gen. *des Nordes*) *ausgesetzt* exposed to the north-wind; (g) in case of nouns without an article or adjective modifier in prepositional phrases: *von Jahr zu Jahr, zu Fuß* on foot, *ein Ring von Gold*, but with an article or adjective modifier the *ε* may appear: *das Ende vom Lied(ε)*, *ein Ring von gediegenem Gold(ε)*; (h) in nouns which are preceded by a name of a weight or measure: *mit einem Liter Wein*; (i) in foreign words: *dem Senat, dem Problem, &c.*

Note. The large group of words referred to in 245. IV. 3. B occurring in set adverbial expressions form often a very noteworthy exception to the rule that the dative drops the *ε* in case of nouns without the article in prepositional phrases. The *ε* was attached to these words in an earlier period when an *ε* was common here, and now it remains in a complete state of fossilization, and hence cannot always be used and dropped at will, as is the case with other words: *Er zieht sein Wörterbuch zu Rate* (perhaps more common than *Rat*) *He consults his dictionary*, but *Er gehört zum Rate* or *Rat*. In some cases this *ε* is very firm in these adverbial expressions: *Er geht zu Grunde* *He is going to rack and ruin*.

F. The using or dropping of *ε* in the gen. and dat. is often a matter of euphony. The following two rules, though not absolutely followed in all instances, may be considered as a good guide in cases not covered by the rules given above:

a. The *ε* drops out in the case ending if the following word begins with a vowel, as the effect is unpleasant to the ear when two vowels come together: *Er ist dem Geiz* (not *Geize*) *ergeben*.

b. The *ε* is much used both in prose and poetry to avoid two accented syllables coming together, and thus standing between accented syllables it causes a rhythmic succession of accented and unaccented syllables: *Näch* *Go'te drā'ngt, am* *Go'te hä'ngt doch alles!*

FIRST CLASS OF THE STRONG DECLENSION.

63. To this class, which has no additional ending in the nom. plural, and never has an *ε* in a case ending, belong:

a. Masc. and neut. nouns ending in unaccented *=el*, *=en* (always contracted to *n* after *=el* and *=er* in verbal nouns: *das Handeln* acting, *das Stottern* stuttering), *=er*, *=hen*, *=lein*, *=sel*: *der Spaten* spade, *der Vater* father, &c.

Also the diminutives in *=erl* and *I*, which have been borrowed from the Bavarian and Austrian dialects, belong here when used

in the literary language: *das Schnaderhüpferl* humorous song, *des Schnaderhüpferls*, pl. *die Schnaderhüpferl*; *das Überbrettl* high-grade variety show, *des Überbrettls*, pl. *die Überbrettl*. For the inflection of these nouns in dialect see 79. 1. *b. Note*.

b. All neuter nouns beginning with the prefix *ge-* and ending in *-e*: *das Gemälde* oil painting, &c.

c. Two feminines, *Mutter* mother and *Tochter* daughter, the isolated masculine *Käse* cheese, and two neuter verbal nouns, *Tun* doing and *Sein* being.

d. Diminutives in *-le* in the Swabian and Alsatian and *-li* in Swiss dialects: *das Herrle* the little man, *des Herrles*, pl. *die* (, *der*, *den*, *die*) *Herrle*. Some Swiss dialects lengthen the stem in the plural: *das Augli* (= *Auglein*), pl. *N. Augli*, *G.* (lacking), *D. Auglene*, *A. Augli*. The *n* drops out in all these dialects in the dat. pl. of this group.

INFLECTION OF THE FIRST CLASS.

64. This class in its declension falls into two divisions:

a. The nom. pl. exactly the same as the sing.

b. The plural is modified or mutated.

Models.

<i>a.</i>	Singular.	<i>b.</i>
N. <i>der Spaten</i> <i>spade</i>	<i>der Bruder</i> <i>the brother</i>	
G. <i>des Spatens</i> <i>of the spade</i>	<i>des Bruders</i> <i>of the brother</i>	
D. <i>dem Spaten</i> <i>to (for) the spade</i>	<i>dem Bruder</i> <i>to (for) the brother</i>	
A. <i>den Spaten</i> <i>the spade</i>	<i>den Bruder</i> <i>the brother</i>	

Plural.

N. <i>die Spaten</i> <i>the spades</i>	<i>die Brüder</i> <i>the brothers</i>
G. <i>der Spaten</i> <i>of the spades</i>	<i>der Brüder</i> <i>of the brothers</i>
D. <i>den Spaten</i> <i>to the spades</i>	<i>den Brüdern</i> <i>to the brothers</i>
A. <i>die Spaten</i> <i>the spades</i>	<i>die Brüder</i> <i>the brothers</i>

Singular.

N. <i>das Gemälde</i> <i>the painting</i>	<i>die Mutter</i> <i>the mother</i>
G. <i>des Gemäldes</i> <i>of the painting</i>	<i>der Mutter</i> <i>of the mother</i>
D. <i>dem Gemälde</i> <i>to the painting</i>	<i>der Mutter</i> <i>to the mother</i>
A. <i>das Gemälde</i> <i>the painting</i>	<i>die Mutter</i> <i>the mother</i>

Plural.

N. <i>die Gemälde</i> <i>the paintings</i>	<i>die Mütter</i> <i>the mothers</i>
G. <i>der Gemälde</i> <i>of the paintings</i>	<i>der Mütter</i> <i>of the mothers</i>
D. <i>den Gemälden</i> <i>to the paintings</i>	<i>den Müttern</i> <i>to the mothers</i>
A. <i>die Gemälde</i> <i>the paintings</i>	<i>die Mütter</i> <i>the mothers</i>

65. Notice that: (1) if the noun ends in *en* it does not add another *n* in the dative plural; (2) feminines do not vary in the sing., the article alone marking case; (3) neuter nouns of the form *Ge* — *e*, as *Gebäude*, often (full explanation in *Note* below and in 83. *b*) modify the root vowel, and usually so the diminutive endings *-chen*

and *lein*, as *das Hündchen* or *Hündlein* *little dog* (fuller statement in 245. I. 8. 1. c). This mutation is not a sign of the plural, but goes throughout the sing. and pl.; (4) words of the forms *Ge—e*, *—chen*, *—lein* are usually neuter: *der Hund*, but *das Hündchen*, &c.

Note. Words of the form *Ge—e* or *Ge—* (ending in *el*, *er*, as *Gefieder*,) often have modification of the stem vowel by mutation (see 26. A and C), as they once had after them an *i*, which has become *e* or dropped out: *Gedränge* (O.H.G. *gidrengi*), *Gefilde* (O.H.G. *gifildi*) derived from *Feld*, *Gefieder* (O.H.G. presumably *gidari* or *gidiri*) derived from *Feder*. However, a large number of verbal nouns, usually new formations formed from the infinitive stem, do not mutate: *das Gelaufe*. When the mutated form and the unmutated form exist side by side there is often a little shade of difference in meaning; see 83. b.

66. The list of nouns in this class that have the nom. sing. like the nom. pl. is much larger than those that modify the root vowel. Among those that suffer mutation in the plural can be safely counted: only one neuter, *Kloster* cloister, but also quite often *Wasser* water, and sometimes *Lager* camp; two feminines, *Mutter* and *Tochter*; the following masculines: *Acker* field, *der Apfel* apple, *Boden* (pl. also *Boden*) bottom, soil, *Bruder* brother, *Faden* (earlier in the period without mutation in the pl.) thread, *Garten* garden, *Graben* ditch, *Hafen* harbor, pot, *Hammer* hammer, *Handel* contention, *Laden* shutter, shop (in the first meaning, pl. also *die Laden*), *Mangel* lack, *Mantel* cloak, *Nagel* nail, *Ofen* stove, *Sattel* saddle, *Schaden* damage, *Schnabel* beak, *Schwager* brother-in-law, *Vater* father, *Vogel* bird.

a. Many other masculines also belong here sometimes: *Bogen* bow, *Kasten* box, *Kragen* collar, *Magen* stomach, *Nabel* navel, *Wagen* wagon, &c. Grammarians discourage the spread of mutation here, as these words were unmutated in earlier periods of the language. When this class was formed in accordance with the development described in 67, a number of words which entered the new class, as *Mutter*, *Vater*, *Bruder*, *Tochter*, *Apfel*, *Hafen* pot, *Mantel*, *Nagel*, *Sattel*, *Schnabel*, were already mutated in the plural. This mutating group possessed a great advantage over the other words, as they had a plural form clearly distinct from the singular, and the economic instincts of the people, undisturbed by historical considerations, appreciated this advantage at once, and extended the mutation in the plural to other words. The list given above represents the view of conservative grammarians. Literary men do not confine themselves to it: *Schubkästen* (Gutzkow), *die Glasfästen* (Raabe's *Hungerpastor*, chap. iv), *die Köpfe*, *die Herzen und Mägen der Menschheit* (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. 26), *preussische Mägen* (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, p. 141). South German authors use mutation still more freely.

67. This class is historically only a modified form of the Second Class. The general rule that does not allow *e* to stand after *el*, *em*, *en*, *er*, *chen*, *lein*, *el*, caused as early as M.H.G. many words that were formerly in the Second Class to drop the plural ending *e*: (O.H.G.) *engil* *angel*, pl. *engila*; M.H.G. *engel*, pl. *engel(e)*. This movement has thus given rise to a new class of nouns not found in O.H.G. The neuters with these endings passed over into this new class very easily and naturally, as they already as O.H.G., and hence needed only to drop the *e* in the other case endings. Also *Mutter*, *Tochter*, and *Bruder* had no ending in the nom. and acc. pl. in O.H.G. The fact that only words of more than one syllable came over into the First Class shows us that the cause of dropping the *e* lies entirely in the accent. There has long been a growing dislike for the dactyl (— ∪ ∪) and in part also for the antibacchius (— ∪ —) as a word foot; see 62. D. (1). This change of form consists in changing a dactyl or antibacchius into

a trochee (—) or a spondee (—). The masculines and neuters in *e*, *el*, *em*, *en*, *er* went over entirely into the new class, but masc. and neut. words in *at*, *idh*, *ig*, *ing*, *ling*, *rich*, *sal* were only in part affected by this movement. They dropped the *e* in the singular, but retained it throughout the plural, in order to mark more clearly the plural idea: *der Wagen*, *des Wagens*, pl. *die Wagen*; but *der Jüngling*, *des Jünglings*, pl. *die Jünglinge*. Those in *nisch* took *es* in the gen. on account of the difficulty of uniting simple *s* with the suffix, but dropped it usually in the dat.: *das Gefängnis*, *des Gefängnisses*, *dem Gefängnis* (*Gefängnisse*), pl. *die Gefängnisse*. The retention of *e* in the plural was facilitated by the secondary accent upon the suffix. The *e* was in general suppressed in the singular more easily than in the plural, because the *s* of the gen. sing. clearly marked this case, and there was little difficulty in recognizing the dat. on account of the preceding article, while in the plural the article is often dropped and a clear plural ending is often needed. These reasons also apply to nouns in *stein*, but the case is quite different, as the nouns in *stein* were neuter and in the M.H.G. period had no plural ending in the nom. and acc. pl. and often throughout the entire plural, and thus in N.H.G. simply retained in the nom. and acc. pl. the historic form, and extended it uniformly to the other cases. Nouns in *stien* and many in *el*, *en*, *er* are also neut., and like those in *stein* had no ending in the nom. and acc. pl., and thus by their example facilitated the dropping of the pl. ending here in case of masculines. On the other hand, the great majority of nouns in *at*, *idh*, *ling*, *rich* were masculine, and retained their historic ending *e* in the plural. The neuters in *nisch* and of the form *Ge* — (69. 5. *b. Note*) had in earlier periods both in the sing. and pl. the ending *e* like *Räse*, which they have dropped in the sing. and retained in the pl. Neuters and feminines in *sal* took *e* in the plural after the example of masculines in *sal*, which were once common, but have since almost disappeared.

The words in this new class were later reinforced by stragglers from other classes and declensions, especially from the weak declension. In a number of weak nouns, as M.H.G. *balke* *beam*, the *en* of the oblique cases was so frequently used that the form in *en* was erroneously taken for the stem of a strong noun in *en*, and was accordingly inflected strong: (M.H.G.) *N. balke*, *G. balken*, *D. balken*, &c.; (N.H.G.) *N. Balken*, *G. Balken*, *D. Balken*, &c. The words which have thus come from the weak declension are almost wholly the names of lifeless objects, which fact accounts for their change of declension. The most common case form of names of living beings is the nom., since a living being is naturally thought of as acting, while the most common case forms of names of lifeless objects are the acc. and dat., since we think of them as things we use, as the objects of an activity or a preposition. Hence in case of these weak nouns representing lifeless objects the frequent dat. and acc. form in *en* became fixed in the mind as the usual form, and gradually displaced the less familiar nom. form in *e*. In most of the words in the list in 68, the old and correct nom. form is still struggling with the acc. form for the mastery in the nom. case. As the nom. form remained firm in case of designations of living beings, and the acc. form supplanted the nom. form in case of names of things, the same word was split into two forms if it had two meanings, one the name of a person, one the name of a thing: *der Franke* *Frank* (race), *der Franken* (in Switzerland) *franc* (coin); *der Lump* (formerly *Lumpe*) *ragged* *beggar*, *good-for-nothing* *fellow*, *der Lumpen* *rag*; *der Rappe* *black* *horse*, originally *raven*, and still so in S.G. dialect, *der Rappen* (in Switzerland a coin upon which is a picture of a raven) $\frac{1}{100}$ *franc*; *der Trepf* (formerly *Treyse*) *simpleton*, *der Treysen* *drop*.

The change of words from the second class and weak declension to this class was a gradual one, and the former order of things can still be seen in Luther's works in a number of cases: *des garten* (2 Kings ix. 27), &c. On the other hand, a large number of feminines which in early N.H.G.

had their sing. and pl. in most part alike, and hence properly belonged here, especially those in *et*, *en*, and *ung*, passed over later into the weak declension, following the general tendency of feminines towards the weak declension: (dat. sing.) *fünbe* (2 Cor. v. 21), (acc. pl.) *fünbe* (1 Cor. xv. 3); (nom. sing. of *Löwin*) *die Löwinne* (Ezek. xix. 2), (nom. pl.) *Löwinne* (Joel i. 6); (acc. pl.) *wonunge* (Ps. lxxxvii. 2).

68. Irregularities in the Declension of the First Class. Though often deficient in the nom. sing. ending *n* or *en*, the following masc. nouns may now be safely put into the first class: *Friede* peace, *Funke* spark, *Gedanke* thought, *Gefälle* kind act, favor, *Glaube* faith, *Haufe* heap, *Name* name, *Same* seed, *Schade* damage, *Wille* will, and usually *Fels* cliff. *Buchstabe* letter (of the alphabet), which is usually a weak noun, belongs here sometimes. All these words except *Buchstabe* (nom. *Buchstaben* still rare) may also have the sing. nom. ending in *-en*, and *Funken*, *Gefallen*, and *Schaden* almost always so, *Felsen* usually so in prose. The plural is entirely regular, *Schaden* suffering mutation according to art. 64, subdivision *b*, and the others without mutation according to *a*.

Singular.

N. der Name(n)	der Felsen or Fels	der Schaden
G. des Namens	des Felsens (Felsen)	des Schadens
D. dem Namen	dem Felsen (Fels)	dem Schaden
A. den Namen	den Felsen or Fels	den Schaden

a. Forms varying from the regular forms above result from the previous declension of these nouns, most of which were once weak or both weak and strong, and hence we sometimes find *des Felsen*, *eines Felses* (early N.H.G.; 2 Chron. xxv. 12), in *einem Fels* (Schwab, *Sagen*, III. 149); pl. *an die Felse* (Steinbach; now obs.). In a few set expressions the old nom. *e* is very firm: *Es ist Schade!* It is too bad! *Friede seiner Asche!* *Friede* (O.H.G. *fridu*) was not originally weak but strong. It had in early N.H.G. the following inflection: *der Friede*, *des Friedes*, *dem*, *den Friede* alongside of the forms *der Friebe*, *des Friebens*, *dem*, *den Frieiden*. The forms in *-en* show that the nom. *e* had led to the conception that the noun was weak. The old strong gen. in *-es* is now obsolete, the nom. in *-e* is still quite common, and the old strong dat. and acc. forms in *-e* not infrequent in the classical period when no article precedes the noun, and still occurs so occasionally: *Und wie lange haben wir schon Friede?* (Lessing's *Minna*, 2, 1). *Ihm hatten längst die stillen Schwarzwaldtannen | Friede ins Gemüt geraucht* (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, 1). The *n* of the oblique cases has gradually become fixed in the nom., but has not yet displaced the old ending *e*.

SECOND CLASS OF THE STRONG DECLENSION.

69. To this class, which forms its plural by adding *e* without mutation of the root vowel, belong:—

1. Masculine monosyllabics:

a. Almost all masculine monosyllabics not capable of mutation in the plural, that is, those monosyllabics not containing one of the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, *au*: *der Weg* way, *der Dienst* service, *der Preis* prize, *der Plüsch* plush. This is a very large group, but the words need not be enumerated, as they are easily recognized by their form.

b. The following masculine monosyllabics containing one of the vowels a, o, u, au, but forming their plural without mutation. Those marked with * have sometimes a mutated plural, those marked with † fluctuate in the plural between mutated and unmutated form: **Āal* eel, *Āar* eagle, *Āst* act, *Ālf* (pl. also wk.) auk, *Ālp* incubus, *Ār* (also neut.) are, *Ārm* arm, *Balz* (also fem.) coupling (time or place of birds), *Ban* ban, ruler of a banat, **Bann* proscription, *Barſch* perch, *Baſ* master, **Baſt* bast, *Bau* (pl. *Baue* dwellings of animals, pl. *Bauten* buildings) building, *Blaff* bark (of a dog), *Bold* fellow, dwarf, *Bord* (rarely neut.) edge, border, *Bord* (sometimes neut. and fem.; see *Bort*, 74. 1) board, shelf, **Born* fount, **Borſt* crack, fissure, *Buchſ* box-tree, *Bult* (also wk. and 3rd cl. str.; nom. also *Bulten* and *die Bülte*) hill(ock), *Butt* (pl. also wk.; also a wk. fem. *die Butte*) turbot, *Ġhan* khan, *Ġlan* (pl. also *Ġlanſ*) clan, **Dachſ* badger, *Danf* (pl. rarely *Dante* or *Dänke*, usually *Danſagungen*; see 96. 5. B), *Docht* wick, *Dolch* dagger, *Dom* cathedral, **Dorn* (see 83), **Dorſch* torsk, *Drall* (also a wk. fem. *die Dralle*) groove in the bore of a rifle, *Droſt* (also wk.) magistrate, *Druck* (see 83), †*Druck* thrashing, *Dunſ* (pl. also wk.) dunce, *Falz* groove, **Fant* coxcomb, *Farn* fern, *Faun* (sometimes wk.) faun, **Fjord* (pl. also sometimes *Fjords*, *Fjorden*) fiord, *Flaſch* flax, *Flaß* boor, **Flaus* 'or **Flaufch* tuft, *Flor* (pl. rare) bloom, blossom, *Flur* (sometimes a wk. fem.) entrance hall, *Forſt* (79. 1. a), **Fund* find, *Fuß* (83), *Gau* (pl. also *Gauen* in both meanings, especially, however, in poetry in the second one; sometimes neut.) district, field, *Golf* gulf (of sea), *Grad* degree, *Gran* (perhaps more commonly neut.) grain (weight), **Grat* ridge, *Groll* (pl. rare) resentment, *Grunz* groan (sign of disapproval), *Guck* look, *Gurt* girth, belt, *Haſ* stroke with a hoe, **Haſt* (pl. sometimes wk.) clasp, †*Haſ* enclosure, fence, grove, *Haß* sound, clang, *Haß* (pl. sometimes wk.) blade (of grass), *Halt* halt, *Harſt* (prov.) troop, *Haß* (pl. rare) hate, *Hau* place where timber is being or has been cut down, blow, often in the pl. with the meaning *flogging*, *Hauch* breath, *Holf* (see 79. 1), *Holm* holm, *Hops* hop, *Horſt* aerie, *Hort* safe retreat, treasure, **Huf* (pl. sometimes wk.) hoof, *Hund* dog, *Hupf* jump, *Jur* (pl. sometimes wk.) joke, *Kalk* lime, *Kant* (or *Kanten* [1st cl. str.]) first or last piece of a loaf of bread containing the crust, **Karſt* mattock, *Klapp* or †*Klapß* slap, *Klatſch* clash, slap, lash, *Klonz* wedge, *Kloon* ball of spun yarn, *Klopf* knock, *Klops* cooked meat-ball, **Knaß* crack, loud sound, *Knaſt* knot, *Knaul* (also neut.; also *der* or *daß Knäul*, 2nd cl., now usually *der* and *daß Knäuel*, *Knauel*, 1st cl.) ball (of thread or wool), **Knorz* knot, *Knups* thump, †*Knuſt* (see 71. 1. a), *Kohl* cabbage, *Koß* or *Goaß* (usually a pl., but often used here as a sing.) coke, **Kolf* deep pool, **Kork* (*Korken*, 1st cl.) cork, *Kra[a]l* (sometimes neut.) kraal, *Kraſch* (pl. also *Kraſché*) crash, panic (in business), *Kulm* peak, *Kult* or *Kultus* (pl. *Kulte*) cult, †*Kumpf* or *Kump* (N.G.) basin, *Kurſ* exchange, course, *Kur* share in a mine, **Lachſ* salmon, *Lac* lac, *Lahn* plate-wire, *Lauch* leek, *Laut* sound, *Loß* (provinc.; also neut., pl. *Lößer*) coppice, *Loſch* cockle, *Lorch* or *Lork* (N.G.) toad, **Luchſ* lynx, *Lump* (79. 1. a), *Lunch* (pl. also *Lunches*) lunch, *Lurch* batrachian, *Maat* mate (naut. term), *Maht* night-

mare, *Maß* (79. I. a), +*Maß* Mat, little fool, *Mohn* poppy, *Mohr* moreen, *Molch* salamander, *Mond* (see 83), *Mord* (pl. *Morde* kinds of murder, pl. *Mordtaten* cases of murder), *Most* unfermented wine, *Muß* half-audible sound, +*Muff* (also a wk. fem. *die Muffe*) muff, **Mund* (pl. also *Münder*) mouth, *Murks* (pop.) dirty or contemptible fellow, *Muß* (sometimes wk.) bobtail, bear, stupid fellow, short coat, *Nord* north-wind, *Öhm* (also neut.) aam, *Ölm* proteus, *Ort* (pl. sometimes *Orter*, in early N.H.G. also *Orte*; in early N.H.G. also neut., now rarely so) place, *Ost* east-wind, +*Pacht* (see 71. I. a), *Past* (pl. sometimes wk., especially in *Chepaften* marriage-contract) agreement, *Park* (pl. more commonly *Parks*) park, *Part* (also neut.) part, +*Pasch* doublets, *Pfau* (79. I. a), *Pfropf* (79. I. a), **Pfuhl* pool, *Poch* rap, *Pole* pole (north and south), *Port* port, +*Prahm* (also a wk. fem. *die Prahme*) praam, ferry-boat, *Brall* shock, *Puls* pulse, +*Pump* (colloq.; pl. also *Pumps*) loan, *Punft* point, **Punsch* punch, *Putsch* revolutionary attempt, *Puß* (pl. rare except in compounds, as *Kopfpüße* different styles of head-dress) adornment, **Qualm* vapor, thick smoke, *Quarz* quartz, **Quast* (more commonly a wk. fem. *die Quaste*) tassel, *Raps* sharp rap, *Maß* (83), *Raub* (pl. rare) robbery, **Rost* grate (of a stove), **Ruck* jerk, *Ruf* call, **Rusch* rush (plant), *Rutsch* land- or snow-slide, *Salm* (sometimes wk.) young salmon, *Samt* velvet, +*Schacht* (pl. sometimes wk.) shaft (in mine), +*Schalf* rogue, wag, **Schall* sound, +*Schaub* bundle of straw, *Schlamp* (pop.) feast, train (of a dress), untidy man, *Schlags* lout, +*Schlöt* chimney, +*Schluck* swallow (of water, &c.), *Schlusf* hiding place, hole through which an animal can slip, *Schlump* (pop. N.G.) lucky chance, +*Schmaß* smack, *Schmuß* (pl. more commonly *Schmußsachen*) ornament, *Schmul* (colloq.; pl. also *Schmuls*) Jew (contempt.), *Schmuß* (pop. and colloq.) foolish talk, *Schorf* flock (of teals), *Schorf* scab, **Schorß* shoot, branch, *Schrat* sylvan spirit, **Schust* scamp, *Schuh* shoe, *Schupp(s)* (N.G.) or *Schupf* (S.G.) shove, **Schurz* apron (for men), *Schwalch* opening (in a furnace), +*Schwaß* gossip, *Schworf* (colloq.) dance, hop, *Shawl*, better *Schal* (pl. usually *Schals*) shawl, *Schalp* scalp, *Sod* (pl. sometimes *Söde*, *Söder*) boiling, *Sog* wake (of a ship), *Spalt* split, *Spann* instep, *Spat* spar, *Sporn* (79. I. a), *Sproß* (79. I. a), *Spuf* ghost, *Spunt* (naut. term; sometimes neut.) a small piece of timber, *Stahl* (see *Note*), *Stäfs* (N.G.) lean and awkward person, *Star* (sometimes wk.) starling, *Start* (pl. usually *Starts*) start, *Stoß* story (of a house), *Stoff* stuff, *Stopf* stopper, darned place, *Strand* strand, *Strauß* (usually here in first meaning, sometimes however wk., usually in the 3rd cl. in the second meaning, always in the 3rd or in pop. language 4th cl. in the last meaning) ostrich, combat, bouquet, *Strolch* vagabond, *Stropp* strop, *Stups* (colloq. N.G.) or *Stupf* (colloq. S.G.) prick, punch, blow, *Stuß* short rifle, **Sud* brewing, *Sund* sound, strait, *Taft* taffeta, *Tag* (sometimes 3rd cl. in S.G.) day, *Takt* time, measure (in music), *Talg* tallow, *Talc* talc, *Tang* tang, *Taps* clumsy fellow, *Tas* (N.G.) heap (of sheaves), **Tausch* (pl. rare) exchange, *Thron* (pl. sometimes wk.) throne, *Toast* toast, health, *Tod* (pl. *Tode* kinds of death, but *Todesfälle* cases of death) death, *Ton* clay, *Topp* (pl. more commonly *Toppes*) top (of mast), +*Torf* peat, piece of peat, *Tost* (provinc.) tuft, *Traft* tract, stretch, *Tran* train-oil, *Traß* trass, *Trauch*

crank, *Troll* (also *wk.*) hobgoblin, *boor*, *Trosch* crest of feathers, *Tros* crowd, gang, *Trupp* (83), *Tuff* tuff, *Tupf* (nom. also *Tupfen*) dot, spot, *Tusch* flourish of trumpets, *Ulf* joke, *Ur* urus, *Wal* whale, *Walm* hipside (of a roof), *Wahl* swivel-hook, *Warp* kedge, *Wart* warder, *Wau* weld, †*Wulst* (also fem. 3rd cl.) pad, bustle, roll, *Zapp* bald-coot, *Zoll* inch, *Zorn* (pl. rare) anger, *Zuck* jerk, twitch, *Zulp* sucking-bag.

Note. This list can be increased by adding (1) other nouns denoting materials, plants, and animals; (2) a large number of technical and provincial words; (3) a few more foreign monosyllabics. The plurals of nouns in the first group do not usually denote different pieces or plants, but different varieties or grades of the material, or different varieties of the species: *der Quarz* quartz, pl. *Quarze* different kinds of quartz.

Differentiation of meaning takes place sometimes in the plural between the mutated and unmutated form: *Stahl* steel, pl. *Stähle* butcher's steels, pl. *Stähle* different kinds of steel. See also 96. 2.

2. Masculine disyllabics and polysyllabics :

a. A number of derivatives, the first component of which is a prefix and the second a monosyllabic noun which is rarely found as an independent word, or as such does not belong to this class: *Befehl'* command, *Begeh'r'* (also neut.) demand, desire, *Befu'h'* purpose, *Bericht'* report, *Bescheid'* answer, information, *Besuch'* visit, *Beweis'* proof, *Erfolg'* success, **Erlaß'* (*Ablass* *indulgence* granted by the church, *Aderlaß* *bleeding*, *Anlaß* *cause*, *occasion*, always with mutation in the pl.; *Durchlaß* *culvert*, *Einlaß* *entrance*, more commonly with mutation, *Nachlaß* *bequest*, *that which is left behind after death*, sometimes with, sometimes without mutation in the pl.) decree, *Erwerb'* acquisition, gain, *Gemahl'* (also neut. in the meanings *husband*, *wife*, especially the latter) husband, *Geßpan'* (sometimes *wk.*) comrade, *Geßpan'* in Hungary a count, high official, *Gespens'* (also *wk.*; also neut., especially in the meanings *bride*, *wife*; now rare, usually employed in humorous language) bridegroom, husband, *Gewahr'iam* safe keeping, *Gewinn'* or *Gewin'st'* gain, *Verein'* society, *Vergleich'* comparison, *Verhaß'* or *Verhau'* abattis, **Verlust'* loss, *Versuch'* attempt, experiment, *Verweis'* reproof, *Verzicht'* renunciation.

b. A few compounds the last component of which is rarely found as an independent word or as such does not belong to this class: **Aufbruch* uproar, revolt, †*Hanswurst* buffoon, *Insult'* insult, *Mittwoch* Wednesday, *Nachweis* proof, *Unhold* mischievous being, fiend, *Unterschlupf* shelter, *Wielstraß* glutton, =*zack* in compounds (as *Dreizack* trident), **Zuwachs* increase, *Zwieback* (pl. also *Zwiebäcke*) piece of cold toast.

c. A number of disyllabic or polysyllabic nouns with accent upon the first syllable which do not have component elements of an appreciable meaning, but are made up of elements not distinctly felt, whether it be from the fact that they have been in the course of time corrupted, or because they are of an origin that is not clearly felt, including a number of foreign words: *Abend* evening, *Ahorn* maple-tree, *Amboß* anvil, *Atlas* (pl. *Atlasse*, also *Atlan'ten* in the second meaning) satin, atlas, *Bal'iam* (pl. also *Bals'ame*) balm, *Bastard* (pop. *Pastert*, pl. *Pasterte*) and *Panfert* (vulg.) bastard, *Bräutigam* intended, *Bussard* buzzard, *Dervisch* dervish, *Gidam* (poetic) son-in-law, *Fetisch* fetish, *Hegeßolz* (also *wk.*) bachelor, *Harnisch* armor, *Herold* herald,

Herzog (see 71. 1. c. (2)), Kobalt cobalt, Kobold (see 245. I. 15. a. Note) hobgoblin, Leichnam corpse, Oheim or Ohm uncle, Pallasch heavy cavalry sword, Stieglitz (sometimes wk.) goldfinch, Tabak (also Tabak') tobacco, Wallach (also wk.) gelding, Wiedehopf hoopoe.

d. A few onomatopoeic formations: Kiebitz lapwing, Kuckuck (pl. also Kuckucks) cuckoo, Uhu (pl. also Uhus) horn-owl.

e. A small but growing number of loose compounds (see 249. II. 2), as Springinsfeld romp, Guckindievel greenhorn, &c.: Guckindievelte (Storm's *Viola tricolor*, II. p. 71). Most compounds of this kind still prefer non-inflection: alle Pharisäer und Gernegroß (Fontane's *Stechlin*, XXXII. p. 398). See also 80.2.

3. Masculine derivatives formed by the aid of unaccented suffixes other than those employed in the first class and -tum of the fourth class, namely, those in -at, -(i)ch, -icht, -ig, -ing, -ling, -is, -rich, &c.: Monat, Nettich, Habicht, Frühling, Wegerich, &c.

Also usually unaccented masculine foreign suffixes, as -al, -ian, -iv, &c., except those in 79.2 and 71.4: Plu'ral (also Plural'), Gro'bian, Su'perlativ (also Superlativ'), &c. Also some of those in 79.2 are trending in this direction; see 79.2. d.

4. A few feminines: a number in -nis and -sal, as Betrübniß, Drangsal, &c.; Sphinx sphinx, Ananas (pl. -sse or uninfl.) pineapple, Salpinx salpinx.

a. Earlier in the period the feminines in -nis and -sal were also inflected weak after the analogy of other feminines that do not suffer mutation in the plural: Verstehet jr diese gleichnißen (now usually neut.) nicht? (Mark iv. 13). Warum stiehe ich Trübsalen? (Lessing).

5. Neuters:

Historical Note. In early N.H.G. neuters might have their nom. and acc. pl. exactly like the nom. sing.: meine grabe (grau) Har (= Haare, acc. pl.; Gen. xlii. 38). This former manner of inflecting the pl. is still very common in one construction, namely, where nouns are used as weights and measures, as sechs Pfund *six pounds*; see 96.4.1. Here, however, the uninflected forms of the nom. and acc. pl. have spread to the gen. and dat.

The present plural ending *e* of the following neuter groups is after the analogy of the masculines in this same class. See also *b. Note*, below, and 67.

The following neuters belong here:

a. All ending in -icht, -nis, -sal: Dickicht thicket, Ereignis event, Schicksal fate.

b. All beginning with *ge-* and not ending in -e, -el, -er, as Gesetz law, except the few in 74.4.

Note. Nouns in this group had in an earlier period both in the nom. sing. and pl. an *e*, which was originally not a case ending but a part of the stem. Thus this group was once identical with the words of the form *Ge—e* (as in Gebirge) in the First Class. The words in this group were separated from the others by dropping the *e* of the nom. sing., so that the *e* which remained in the nom. pl. was construed as a pl. ending. The words whose root syllable ended in *b*, *p*, *g*, and *g*, usually retained the *e* in the sing., the others dropped it: Gebäude, Gebirge, but Gebell, &c. The *e* which was once in the sing. of these words was originally an *i*, and hence the mutation in most of these words: Gespräch (O.H.G. gispräch).

c. The majority of monosyllabic neuters. Among these words are many names of materials the plurals of which we translate by *kinds* or *grades of*; see 1. *b. Note*, above. The list is as follows: Al (des Altes, pl. die Alte) ace, Bad (also a wk. fem.) forecastle, Beer

(in early N.H.G. and still in dialects as in the works of Rosegger ; now a wk. fem. in the form of die Beere, which is in fact the old pl.) berry, Beet (pl. sometimes wk.) bed (in a garden), Beil axe (with short handle), Bein leg, Bier beer, Blei lead, Boot (pl. often Böte) boat, Bräu (71. a), Brot (pl. sometimes Bröte) loaf of bread, Bund bundle, bunch, Deck deck, Ding (83), Dock (pl. more commonly Docks) dock, Eck (in use earlier in the period and still occasionally found ; now usually restricted to compounds such as Dreieck triangle, &c. ; elsewhere now replaced by the wk. fem. Ecke) corner, Erz ore, Fell hide, Fenn fen, Fest festival, Fett fat, Fjell (or Fjeld) elevated plain (in Scandinavia), Flach flat bottom of a boat, Fleet (N.G.) navigable canal, Flöz horizontal stratum, Frett ferret, Garn yarn, Gas gas, Gift poison, Gleis track, Glück happiness, Gold gold, Gramm gram, Gran (see 1. b, above), Groß (des Grosses, pl. die Grossen) gross, Haar hair, Haß (pl. also Haßes) fresh water bay (along the Baltic), Harz gum (of tree), Held stern, Heer army, Heft note-book, Hehl (also masc.) secret, Heil happiness, salvation, Hirn brain, Jahr year, Joch (also a pl. Jöcher, a mining term used of certain beams) yoke, Kinn chin, Kliff (pl. also Kliffes) cliff, Knie knee, Kreuz cross, Kuff (also a wk. fem. Kuffe) koff, Kummel or Kunt hame, Land (83), Laub (earlier in period with the plurals Läufer or Laube in the first meaning, now usually in the second meaning without pl.) leaf, foliage, Leck (also masc.) leak, Leich flowering rush, Lob (pl. usually Lobeserhebungen or Lobsprüche) praise, Log[g] (ship's) log, Los lot, Lot plumb-line, Luch (see 74. 1), Mähl (pl. more commonly Mähler) repast, Mal (pl. more commonly Mäler, but always Merkmale characteristics, Wundenmale scars, Nägelmale marks of nails) mole, mark, sign, Mal time (two, three times, &c.), Malz malt, Maß measure, Meer sea, Mehl flour, Moor moor, Moos (pl. Möser swampy lands) moss, Mus (pl. also Müser) stewed fruit, Netz net, Noth yard-arm, Ohr eye (of a needle), Öl oil, Paar pair, Pech pitch, Pferd horse, Pfund pound, Pult desk, Quart quart, Recht right, Reck horizontal bar, Reep rope (naut. term), Reef reef (in a sail), Reh doe, Reich empire, Ried (pl. sometimes Nieder) reed, swampy land, Ries ream, Riff reef (of rocks), Rohr (pl. rarely Röhre) reed, pipe, Roß (pl. in early N.H.G. Rösser, as in Deut. xvii. 16 ; still so in Austria, as in Rosegger's *Martin der Mann*, p. 80) horse, steed, Rund (sometimes masc.) circle, Salz salt, Schaf sheep, Schaff (provinc. ; pl. sometimes Schäffer) tub, Schapp (N.G.) case, cupboard, Schiff ship, Schilf (sometimes masc.) reed, Schleet thin tree, Schock three-score, Schott (pl. also wk.) bulkhead, Schrot (sometimes masc.) cylindrical block, Schwab (sometimes masc. 2nd cl. str., or wk. ; nom. also sometimes die Schwabe or der Schwaben) swath, Schwein hog, Seil rope, Sieb sieve, Sil[1] (also wk. fem. Sil[1]e or Siele) breast-piece of a breast harness, Spiel play, Spill capstan, Spind (79. 1. b), Spriet sprit, Stag stay (naut. term ; pl. also Stags), Stück (pop. often Stuck ; pl. sometimes Stücken, pop. Stucken and Stücker) piece, Tau heavy rope, Teil share, Tief deep channel, canal, Tier animal, Tor gate, Tuch cloth, Vieh (74. 1), Vlies fleece, Watt (pl. also Watten) shallow place bordering upon the shore only covered at high tide, Wehl (also masc. ; also fem. Wehle) deep place wrought by the waves, water-gall, Wehr dam, Werft (more

commonly a wk. fem.) wharf, Werf work, Wort (83), Wrad (pl. also Wradē) wreck, Zelt (pl. sometimes Zelten, Zelter) tent, Zeug (in early N.H.G. also masc.) stuff, troop or army (early N.H.G.), Ziel goal, Zinn (sometimes masc.) zinc, Zinn tin, and a few more names of materials and a few technical terms.

d. A few derivatives and compounds the final component of which does not exist as an independent noun, or as such does not belong to this class: Antliß (poetic) face, Augenmerk aim, Bestek' (pl. often Bestekē) knife and fork, Darlehn (now usually Darlehen, 1st cl. str.) loan, Hundert hundred, Kleinod (79. 1. b), Leilach (pl. also wk.) sheet, Rückgrat backbone, Tausend thousand, Urteil judgment, Verlies' dungeon, Versteck' (sometimes masc.) hiding-place, Vielsack polyhedron, Vollblut thoroughbred horse.

e. A few disyllabics the component parts of which do not have an appreciable meaning: Duzend dozen, Mammut (pl. also Mammutē) mammoth, Messing brass, Pestschaft seal, Tesching (sometimes masc.; pl. also Teschingē) a gun of very small bore.

6. A few loose compounds (see 80. 2): Vergißmeinnicht forget-me-not, Lebewohl farewell. Non-inflection or a form in -s is more common here in the plural, and non-inflection is also found sometimes in the singular; see 80. 2.

7. A large number of foreign words accented upon the last syllable. The striking feature of these words is the very strong preponderance of neuters. Almost all the neuters in the language accented upon the last syllable belong here, except a few in 74. 5 and 79. 2. e and f, and a number of words in these groups are trending in this direction.

In some of these foreign words there is a tendency to shift the accent upon the first syllable after the manner of German words. Some take occasionally the plural in -s instead of the regular ending -e, as die Graveurs instead of the more common Graveure. In general, however, there is now a strong tendency in choice language to discard -s in favor of the German ending e.

To this group belong:

a. Masculines and neuters ending in accented ag, ast, at, et (ft), et, il, ist, it, itß, ll, ng, og, om, op, ost, ph, pt, tt, ut, only, however, when they represent things, for nouns which have these same endings are weak when they represent persons or other living beings: der Granit' granite, des Granitē', but der Bandit' bandit, des Banditēn, &c. For exceptions see 76. I. 4. a. Note.

The list of the above endings is not complete, but in general it holds good that masc. and neut. nouns accented upon the last syllable belong here if they represent lifeless objects.

b. Masc. and neut. nouns representing either beings or things ending in accented al (see Note 1), an (see Note 2), an, ar (see Note 2), ar, ast, em, ert, eur (pronounce ör), ier, iv, lt, mm, ol, on (see Note 2), or, and the sibilants s, ß, r, z: Pennal' pen-case, Admiral', Rhytier' clyster, Offizier' officer, &c. Occasionally the accent shifts upon the first syllable after German fashion: der Kom'pass compass, des Kompassē, &c. But if the sibilant was originally unaccented the word does

71. I. a. SECOND CLASS OF STRONG DECLENSION 81

not belong here : *der Konſens' consent*, *des Konſen'ses*, but *Mu'sikus (82)* musician, *des Muſikus*.

Note 1. A few foreign nouns in *al'* belong to the third class, and several, as *Admiral*, fluctuate between the two classes, but the tendency is toward non-mutation; see 71. 4.

Note 2. A few nouns representing living beings are weak : *Ulan' uhlan*, *Veteran' veteran*, *Barbar' barbarian*, *Huſar' hussar*, *Scholar' (archaic) pupil*, *Autochthon' (also Autochthone) autochthon*, *Diaſon' (sing. also str.) deacon*. A few others fluctuate between the strong and the weak inflection, but the former is gaining upon the latter.

Note 3. *Päſtor* and *Tenor'* sometimes form the irregular plural *Päſtöre*, *Tenöre*; see 71. 4. If *Päſtor* is accented upon the first syllable, which is more common, it does not belong here at all, but to the group in 70. 2. a. *Päſtor'* is sometimes weak.

c. The isolated masc. *Charakter character* has the accent upon the final syllable of the stem only in the pl., *Charakte're*, but in the language of the common people the pl. is *Charak'ter*, and the word with them has thus passed over into the 1st cl.

General Note. It will be observed by even a glance at the preceding groups that some of them, especially the masc. monosyllabics and, to a less extent, masc. disyllabics and polysyllabics, stand under the influence of the 3rd cl., the mutation in the pl. spreading from that class by analogy to this. Thus a number of words are uncertain in their pl., and it cannot easily be determined whether the regular pl. without mutation or the new one with mutation is the more common, but at present the tide has turned and in general the drift is toward the unmutated forms. See 71. I. a.

Note. Earlier in the period a number of the words belonging to 7 were entirely or partially weak : *der Roman* (pl. wk.; sing. str. except in compounds : *des Romans*, but *Romanenheldin*), *Baron* (wk.), *Spion* (wk.), *Koloß* (wk.); *das Atom* (wk.), *Epigramm* (str. in sing., wk. in pl.), *Phantom* (str. in sing., wk. in pl.), &c., all now in 2nd cl. str.

70. Models of Inflection for Second Class :

Singular.

Arm <i>arm</i> , m.	Gefängniß <i>prison</i> , n.	Drangſal <i>distress</i> , f.
N. der Arm	das Gefängniß	die Drangſal
G. des Arm(e)s	des Gefängniſſes	der Drangſal
D. dem Arm(e)	dem Gefängniß (or =niſſe)	der Drangſal
A. den Arm	das Gefängniß	die Drangſal

Plural.

N. die Arme	die Gefängniſſe	die Drangſale
G. der Arme	der Gefängniſſe	der Drangſale
D. den Armen	den Gefängniſſen	den Drangſalen
A. die Arme	die Gefängniſſe	die Drangſale

Note. Words in § preceded by a *short* vowel double the § when a vowel follows; see the inflection of *Gefängniß* above. Thus also *der Iſtiß*, *des Iſtiſſes*; *der Atlas*, *des Atlaiſſes*, &c.; see also 4. 2. C. a, p. 17.

THIRD CLASS OF THE STRONG DECLENSION.

71. To this class, which mutate the root vowel in the plural and add *e*, belong :

1. The following masculine groups :

a. The following masc. monosyllabic nouns, which contain a mutable vowel (a, o, u, au). Those marked with * have *sometimes* an unmutated plural, those marked with + fluctuate in the plural between mutated and unmutated form. *Abt* abbot, *Arzt* physician, *Aſch* bowl, *Aſt* branch, *Bach* brook, *Balg* skin, *Ball* ball, *Band* volume,

Bart beard, Bäß bass, Bauch belly, Baum tree, Baufch bolster, pad, Bloß block, Boß he-goat, Brand fire, *Brau (now more commonly *der* or *das* Bräu, 2nd cl.) brewing, Brauch custom, Bruch fracture, Bruch (74. 1), Bug bend, Bund alliance, Busch bush, Cher (see 3, below), Damm dam, Dampf vapor, Darm intestine, Draht wire, Drang impulse, strong desire, †Drusch thrashing, Duft fragrant odor, Dunst vapor, Fall fall, Fang catch, tusk (of boar), tooth (of wolf), talon, claw, Floß flea, *Flor crape, gauze, Flöß (see 3, below), Fluch curse, Flug flight, Flunk hook, fluke (of an anchor), Fluß river, Fraß (pl. also Fracks) dress-coat, Froßch frog, Frost frost, Fuchs (S.G. also wk.) fox, Fuß (83) foot, Gang walk, Gast guest, *Gauch (pl. sometimes wk.) cuckoo, fool, *Gaul horse, nag, Grund ground, reason, Gruß greeting, Guß casting, †Hag enclosure, fence, grove, Hahn (earlier in the period also wk.) cock, Hals neck, Hang declivity, Hof court, Hub lift, Hut hat, Kahn boat, Kamm comb, *Kamp (pl. sometimes wk.) enclosed field, Kampf combat, Kauf purchase, Kauz (earlier in the period also wk. and 2nd cl. str.) brown owl, fellow, Klang sound, †Klapp slap, Klöß clod, dumpling, Klotz block, †Klump (earlier in period common, still in use in N.G. [in'n Klump geschossen, Raabe]; now usually 1st cl. str. in the form Klumpen; both forms from older wk. Klumpe) lump, dumpling, Knauf knob, Knaus (S.G.) or †Kniß (N.G.) heel (of a loaf of bread), Knopf button, Knuff cuff (blow), Koch cook, Rog land wrested from the sea, Kopf head, Korb basket, Kram (now usually replaced in this meaning by Krambude or Kramladen) booth (shop), Krampf cramp, *Kran (sometimes wk.; nom. sometimes Kranen) crane (machine), Kranz wreath, Kropf craw, wen, Krug pitcher, †Kumpf (69. 1. b), Kuß kiss, Latz breast-cloth, Lauf (sometimes, especially earlier in the period, also Lauft) course, time, Lohn reward, Markt market, Marsch march, †Maß Mat, little fool, Mops pug dog, †Muff (69. 1. b), Napf bowl, †Pacht (more commonly a wk. fem.) lease, rental, *Pack pack, Papst pope, †Paßch doublets, Paß pass, Pfahl stake, Pfloß peg, Pflug plow, Pirof (see 79. 1. a), Plan (pl. earlier in the period Plane) plan, Platz place, Pott (N.G.) pot, †Prahm (69. 1. b), Propst provost (of a church), rector, *Puff thump, †Pump (69. 1. b), Ranft crust, Rang rank, Rat councillor, *Rauch (pl. rare) smoke, Raum space, Raufch intoxication, Rod coat, Rumpf trunk, body, Saal room, Sack sack, Saft juice, Sang song, Sarg coffin, Satz sentence, Saum hem, Schacht (69. 1. b), *Schacht shaft, †Schalk (69. 1. b), Schatz treasure, †Schaub (69. 1. b), Schaum foam, Schlaf (pl. rare) sleep, Schlaf (usually a wk. fem. die Schläfe) temple (on the head), Schlag blow, Schlauch leather bag, †Schlot chimney, †Schlund (69. 1. b), Schlund chasm, Schlupf hiding place, Schlurf gulp, Schluß close, †Schmaß smack, Schmaus feast, Schnaps whiskey, Schopf tuft (of hair, feathers), Schopf lap, Schrank case, press, Schrund (also wk. fem. die Schrunde) cleft, Schuß push, Schurf scratch, pit, opening (min.), Schuß shot, Schwamm sponge, Schwan (76. 3. b) swan, Schwang swing, Schwanf prank, farce, Schwanz tail, Schwarm swarm, crowd, †Schwaß gossip, Schwulst (in the first meaning also fem.; see 2, below) swelling, bombast, Schwung flight, soaring, Schwur oath, Sohn son, Span shaving, Spas joke, Spruch saying, saw, Sprung jump, Spund bung, Stab staff, Stahl (69. 1. b. Note), Stall stable, Stamm

trunk, tribe, *Stand* stand, rank, station, *Stoß* stick, cane, *Storch* (sometimes wk.) stork, *Stoß* push, pile, *Strang* rope, trace, *Strauch* (pl. also *Sträucher*) bush, shrub, *Strauß* (69. 1. b), *Strom* stream, *Stumpf* stocking, **Strunk* stump, *Stuhl* chair, *Stumpf* short end, stump, *Sturm* storm, *Sturz* (earlier in the period 2nd cl. str.) fall, *Swamp* swamp, *Tanz* dance, *Ton* tone, *Topf* pot, †*Torf* peat, piece of peat, *Trank* drink, *Traum* dream, *Trog* trough, *Tropf* (earlier in the period wk. and sometimes still so) simpleton, *Trug* (pl. rare) deceit, *Trumpf* trump, *Turm* tower, *Vogt* governor, steward, *Wall* rampart, *Wanst* paunch, *Wolf* wolf, *Wuchs* growth, †*Wulst* (also fem. ; see 2, below), *Wunsch* wish, *Wurf* throw, *Zahn* tooth, *Zanf* (pl. usually *Zänfereien*) quarrel, *Zaum* bridle, *Zaun* hedge, fence, *Zoll* toll, *Zopf* plait of hair, cue, *Zug* train.

Note. This mutating group is a *little* smaller than the unmutating mutable group in 69. 1. b, but it may turn out to be *much* smaller, as the latter group may prove to be larger than the present enumeration shows, as explained in the *Note* under 69. 1. b. The mutating group, however, contains a number of very common words, and has thus naturally from the earliest historic times attracted to itself words from the other group. It has thus been slowly increasing throughout the different periods almost up to our own time, but at present mutation in this group seems to be losing ground, and a number of words have gone over to the other group or fluctuate between them. Compare 69. 1. b. It has also not the prospect of attracting foreign monosyllabics that seems to be before the non-mutating group. The former inflection of some of the words that have come from the non-mutating group to this class can still be seen in fossilized proper names: *Königshofen* (dat. pl. ; see 88. 1). The pl. of *Hof* is now elsewhere uniformly *Höfe*.

b. Several masculines of the form *Ge-*: *Gebrauch* custom, *Genuss* enjoyment, *Geruch* odor, *Gesang* song, *Geschmack* (pl. often *Geschmäcker*) taste, *Gestank* stench.

c. A few derivatives and compounds, the final component of which does not exist as an independent word, or as such does not have a mutated plural :

(1) Derivatives: *Bedacht* (pl. rare) consideration, *Belag* slice of meat for a sandwich, veneer, coating, *Bestand* amount on hand, *Betrag* amount, *Ertrag* yield, return, *Verdacht* (pl. rare) suspicion, *Verdruß* vexation, *Vertrag* contract.

(2) Compounds: *Ab-*, *Aus-*, *Ein-*, *Händedruck* (see *Druck* in 83), *Ab-*, *Ader-*, *Aus-*, *Durch-*, *Ein-*, *Nachlaß* (69. 2. a), *Antrag* offer, **Anwalt* attorney, *Beitrag* contribution, *Diebstahl* theft, *Einwand* objection, †*Hanswurst* (69. 2. b), =*hans Johnny* in compounds (as *Prahlschans* braggart), *Herzog* (earlier in the period wk., later 2nd cl. str., now also 3rd cl. str. ; still wk. in compound names of places, as *Herzogenbusch*) *duke*, earlier in the period in its original meaning *leader of an army*, *leader*, *captain*, *Hochmut* (pl. rare) pride, *Marshall* (early N.H.G. *Marſchalk* ; pl. also *Marſchalls*) marshal, *Vorwand* pretext, *Zwieback* (69. 2. b).

2. The following feminines : *Angst* (see a, below) anxiety, *Armbrust* cross-bow, *Axt* ax, *Bank* bench, *Braut* bride, *Brunst* fire, heat, desire, lust, *Brust* breast, *Faust* fist, =*flucht* in the compounds *Ausflucht* evasion, *Zuflucht* (pl. rare) refuge, as a simple noun and elsewhere in compounds wk., *Fluß* (Swiss ; see also c, below) wall of rock, precipice, *Frucht* fruit, *Gans* goose, *Geschwulst* (less commonly *Schwulst*) swelling, *Gruft* vault, *Hand* hand, *Haut* skin, *Kluft* (sometimes wk.) cleft, *Kraut*

strength, Ruch cow, Ruchst in compounds (as in Einkuchst income), Kuchst art, Kuchst louse, Kuchst air, Kuchst pleasure, Kuchst might, Kuchst servant girl, Kuchst mouse, Kuchst night, Kuchst seam, Kuchst (see *a*, below) need, necessity, strait, Ruchst nut, Kuchst (usually wk. ; see 83), Kuchst or the rarer form Kuchst (the former now usually wk.) defile, cleft, Kuchst (pl. sometimes wk.) string, Kuchst city, Kuchst (Hauptmann's *Heinrich*, I, I. p. 6 ; usually wk.) malady, Kuchst wall (of a room), Kuchst (also masc. 2nd or 3rd cl.) pad, bustle, roll, Kuchst sausage, Kuchst (wk. in the first two meanings) breed, brood, modest act that shows good breeding, Kuchst guild.

a. The regular dat. pl. Kuchst is used in many idiomatic expressions, and its frequent use has led to the erroneous idea that the plural throughout is Kuchst, which is thus sometimes used instead of the regular form Kuchst. For the same reason we also find the pl. Kuchst instead of Kuchst.

b. A few irregularities indicate a different declension in a former period: abhan'den (dat. pl.) *lost, mislaid*, vorhan'den sein *to exist*, bei Han'den sein *to be at hand*, and other such fossilized expressions ; Weihnachten (dat. pl.) Christmas ; Kuchst is regularly wk. in the two compounds, Ohnmacht *swoon*, Vollmacht *full power to act in all cases*. In Goethe's day the simple word could be wk. : Mit Kuchsten sprubte, Quell', aus deinen Höhlen (Goethe).

c. In M.H.G. the sing. of these feminines was not uninflected as now, but the gen. and dat. added *e* and the vowel suffered mutation. This former inflection can still be seen in proper names, also in a few compounds in which the first component is a gen. : Klaus von der Flue (dat. of Flue) a character in Schiller's *Tell* ; Gänsefeder *feather of a goose, goose-quill*. In a few isolated cases both the nom. and gen. (or dat.) forms of a simple noun have been preserved, but they are not felt as nom. and gen., for they have become independent nouns with differentiated meanings : Fahrt *journey, drive*, Fahrte *track, trace, scent*.

3. Two neuters : Kuchst (sometimes masc.) *raft* and Chor *part of the church where the choir sit*, also in popular language *crowd, gang*. The masc. der Chor is used for the *body of singers* and also for the *song* they sing. Here belongs often the neut. Boot (pl. Boote or Bote) *boat* and sometimes Brot *loaf of bread*, Rohr *pipe*.

4. A few foreign words with accent upon the final syllable, but sometimes after German fashion upon the first : Altar' (and in earlier N.H.G. Altar, pl. also Altare) altar, Bischof' of bishop, Choral' hymn, General' (pl. in choice language more commonly Generäle) general, Kanal' canal, Kaplan' chaplain, Kardinal' cardinal, Morast' (pl. also Moraste) morast, Palast' and Palaßt palace. In these words it is the second vowel that suffers the mutation : der Altar, pl. die Altäre. Sometimes other foreign words, as Admiral' admiral, join this group, but present feeling is opposed to the mutation of foreign words.

72. Models of Inflection for Third Class :

Singular.

	Sohn <i>son</i> , m.	Kuchst <i>raft</i> , n.	Hand <i>hand</i> , f.
N.	der Sohn	das Kuchst	die Hand
G.	des Sohn(e)s	des Kuchstes	der Hand
D.	dem Sohn(e)	dem Kuchst(e)	der Hand
A.	den Sohn	das Kuchst	die Hand

Plural.

N.	die Söhne	die Klöße	die Hände
G.	der Söhne	der Klöße	der Hände
D.	den Söhnen	den Klößen	den Händen
A.	die Söhne	die Klöße	die Hände

FOURTH CLASS OF THE STRONG DECLENSION.

73. This class adds *er* to form the nom. pl. and mutates the root vowel if it is capable of it: *das Buch* book, *des Buchs*, pl. *die Bücher*. Those ending in *tum* mutate this suffix instead of the root vowel: *das Herzogtum* duchy, pl. *die Herzogtümer*.

a. The ending *er* now found in the pl. of these words was once *ir*, and hence the mutation. This *er*, however, is probably not a case ending, but a derivative suffix, and was in earlier periods also found in the sing. It finally disappeared in the sing. and was then felt as a pl. ending. That this *er* is not an inflectional ending can still be seen in the pl. when the diminutive suffix *-chen* or *-lein* is added: *Kindchen* children or usually *Kinderchen*. In the latter example *r* would have to follow *chen*, instead of preceding it, if it were really a case ending. The *r* is still found in the sing. in a few derivatives, where, however, its force is no longer felt; see 245. II. 3. *a. Note*.

b. This *er* as pl. ending is a very popular one, and is often used in dialect or familiar humorous language with words of the 2nd or 3rd class instead of the regular ending of those classes, as *Steiner* for *Steine* stones, &c. A number of words fluctuate between the second class and this class even in the literary language, as is mentioned in particular under each class. Perhaps the forms in *er* are choicer than those in *er*, even sometimes bordering upon the poetic, but they are often much less common: *Denkmale* and *Denkmäler*, *Gewande* and *Gewänder*. A number of words which now are firmly fixed here were in earlier periods in the second class, lacking, however, endings in nom. and acc. pl.; see 69. 5. *Historical Note*, and 74. 1. *a*.

74. To this class, which has no feminines, belong:

1. All other native German neut. monosyllabics not found in the second class in 69. 5. *c* and the few in the third class in 71. 3 and in the mixed declension (see 79. 1. *b*), namely: *Maß* (pl. also *Maße*) carcass, *Amt* office, *Bad* bath, *Paß* (83), *Vand* (83), *Biest* (pop.) beast, domestic animal, *Bild* picture, *Blatt* leaf, *Bort* (also a masc., in 3, below; also in the form *Bord*, see 69. 1. *a*) shelf, *Brett* (pl. rarely *Brette*) board, *Bruch* (also masc., pl. *Brüche*) bog, *Buch* book, *Dach* roof, *Daus* deuce, *Ding* (83), *Dorf* village, *Ei* egg, *Fach* compartment, *Fäß* barrel, *Feld* field, *Geld* money, *Gicht* convulsion, *Glas* glass, *Glied* link, *Grab* grave, *Gras* grass, *Gut* property, *Haupt* head, *Haus* house, *Hemd* (79. 1. *b*), *Holz* wood, *Horn* horn, *Huhn* fowl, *Kalb* calf, *Kind* child, *Kleid* dress, *Korn* grain, *Kraut* herb, *Lamm* lamb, *Land* (83), *Licht* (83), *Lid* eyelid, *Lied* song, *Löch* hole, *Loh* (69. 1. *b*), *Luch* (sometimes 2nd cl. str.) marsh, *Mahl* (69. 5. *c*), *Mal* (69. 5. *c*), *Maul* mouth (of animals), *Mensch* (83), *Nest* nest, *Pfand* pledge, *Rad* wheel, *Reis* shoot, *Ried* (pl. usually *Niede*) reed, *Rind* beef, *Scheit* (83), *Schild* shop sign, *Schloß* castle, *Schwert* sword, *Stift* endowed institution, *Tal* (in poetic language sometimes 2nd cl.) valley, *Tuch* (83), *Vieh* (collective noun, hence usually without pl.; sometimes referring to an individual, occasionally with pl. *Viehe*, but more commonly *Vieher* animals, fig. *Kindvieher* stupid fellows; colloq. and pop. pl. *Viecher* beasts, 'critters')

cattle, Volk people, Wams (sometimes masc.) waistcoat, Weib woman, Wort (83). Here also belongs Trumm (also masc.) ruin, fragment. Its plural is usually Trümmer, and only rarely Trümme and Trümme. The sing. is very little used, and hence its form is not vividly felt. This has given rise to new formations in the sing. The usual plural form is often taken for a sing. This new sing. is either fem., masc., or neut. The pl. formed from this new sing. is of course wk., i. e. Trümmern, if it is regarded as fem., and is 1st cl. str., i. e. Trümmer, if it is felt as a masc. or neut.

a. In early N.H.G. a number of these words did not suffer mutation in the plural and were inflected after the model of the 2nd cl., as described for the early N.H.G. period in 69. 5. *Historical Note*. This can still be seen in many fossilized forms, as in Haupt in names of places, as Berghaupten (dat. pl.; see 88. 1); also in the dat. pl. form Häupten in a few set expressions, as zu Häupten (des Bettes, &c.) *at the head (of the bed, &c.)*. In early N.H.G. Haupt had as a rival the M.G. form Hapt (O.H.G. houbit, and hence mutation), which still in such expressions as the preceding survives in its early N.H.G. dat. pl. form Häupten, which, however, in meaning has now the force of the sing. The pl. form here is probably after the analogy of zu Füßen, where the plural has a real meaning.

2. All in -tum, of which two only are masc. (Irrtum *error* and Reichthum *wealth*) and the rest neut.: das Christentum, &c.

3. A few isolated masculines: Wort (see 1, above), Bösewicht (pl. now perhaps more commonly Bösewichte) rascal, Dorn (83), Geist spirit, Gott God, god, Hundsfott (pl. Hundsfötter) scoundrel, Leib body, Mann man, Mund (69. 1. b), Ort (69. 1. b), Quack youngest child, 'kid,' Rand edge, Strauch (71. 1. a), Strauß (69. 1. b), Vormund (in early N.H.G. wk. with form Vormünd(e), later str. with pls. Vormünde, more commonly Vormunde, most commonly Vormünder) guardian, Wald (see b) forest, Wurm (pl. rarely Würme; see 83).

a. Masculines did not originally belong to this class. Some of these masculines, as Ort, Gott (M.H.G. der got *God*, but daz abgot *idol*), were once neut. as well as masc., and later retained the neut. pl. form, although they dropped the neut. article in favor of the masc. Several masculines were attracted into this class, assuming the neut. pl. after the analogy of neut. nouns of a similar meaning: Wälder *woods* after the analogy of Hölzer *woods*; Geister *spirits* after the analogy of Götter *gods*; Männer *men* after the analogy of Weiber *women*.

b. Wald was formerly in the second class, as can still be seen in the fossilized proper name Unterwalden (dat. pl. = unter den Wäldern).

4. A few neuters, exceptions to the 2nd cl. (69. 5. b): Gehalt (earlier and sometimes still masc. with pl. Gehalte) salary, Gemach room (of a house), Gemüt disposition, Geschlecht (poet. pl. Geschlechter) generation, Gesicht (83), Gespenst ghost, Gewand (pl. sometimes Gewande) garments, Gewölb (usually Gewölbe, 1st cl. str.) vault.

5. A few foreign words: (1) exceptions to 2nd cl.: das Kamisol' (now usually 2nd cl. str.) jacket, das Kapital' or Kapittel' (both forms usually 2nd cl.) capital of a pillar, Kollett' (usually 2nd cl.) doublet, der Pennal' (pl. sometimes Pennale, Pennale; nom. sing. also Pennaler) gymnasium student, das Präsent' (usually 2nd cl.) present, das Regiment' regiment, das Spital' or Hospital' hospital; (2) der Wiking (pl. also 2nd cl.; nom. sing. also Wifinger) viking.

75. Models of Inflection for Fourth Class :

Singular.			
	Buch <i>book</i> , n.	Irrtum <i>error</i> , m.	Bild <i>picture</i> , n.
N.	das Buch	der Irrtum	das Bild
G.	des Buch(e)s	des Irrtums	des Bild(e)s
D.	dem Buch(e)	dem Irrtum	dem Bild(e)
A.	das Buch	den Irrtum	das Bild
Plural.			
N.	die Bücher	die Irrtümer	die Bilder
G.	der Bücher	der Irrtümer	der Bilder
D.	den Büchern	den Irrtümern	den Bildern
A.	die Bücher	die Irrtümer	die Bilder

WEAK DECLENSION.

76. I. The weak declension ends in *-n* or *-en* (see 61. *b*) in every case sing. and pl. except the nom. sing., and never modifies the root vowel in the pl. : der Knabe boy, des, dem, den, pl. die, der, den, die Knaben. Feminines not being declined in the singular have only the plural of this declension. To the weak declension belong :—

1. All the native and foreign fem. nouns in the language, with the following few exceptions : (1) Mutter and Tochter in the *first class* ; (2) those ending in *-nis* and *-sal* in the *second class* ; (3) the list in the *third class* (see 71. 2) ; (4) a few foreign words (see 80. 1 and 69. 4).

a. Foreign fem. in *-a* and *-is* drop these letters in the pl. and add *-en* : die Firma firm, pl. die Firmen ; die Waise, pl. die Waisen. All in *-in* double the *n* in the pl. : Fürstin princess, pl. Fürstinnen.

2. All masculines of two or more syllables ending in unaccented *-e*, provided they represent persons or other living beings : der Knabe boy, der Preuße Prussian, der Löwe lion, &c. Also three names of lifeless things belong here : der Buchstabe (see 68), der Hirse (also 1st cl. str., often with shortened form in dialect der Hirs ; now more commonly fem. die Hirse) millet, der Zehnte tithe. The list of lifeless things was once much larger ; see 67.

3. The following list of masculines, which, having no *-e* in the nom. sing., or having lost there the *e* which once belonged to them, cannot now be recognized by an ending : Alh (79. 1) ; Alf (sometimes 2nd cl. str.) elf ; Vär (str. sometimes in sing.) bear ; Bayer Bavarian ; Bläß (Bleß ; also 2nd cl. str.) blazed horse ; Vult (69. 1. *b*) ; Vursch (pl. not infrequently Vursche) or Vursche young fellow, student, servant ; Buß (also Buße and Bußen [1st cl. str.]) core ; Christ (but 2nd cl. str. in the meaning *Christmas present*) Christian ; Dolmetß (sing. also uninflected, pl. also Dolmetße ; usually replaced by the str. Dolmetßer) interpreter ; Droß (also 2nd cl. str.) magistrate ; Drud night-mare ; Ehehalt (early N.H.G. and still used in the South) servant ; Elf elf ; Farr or more commonly Farre (both words now little used) bull, bullock, in S.G. also draught-ox ; Faun (usually 2nd cl. str.) faun ; Fer (more commonly 2nd cl. str.) fool ; Filß (rarely wk., usually 2nd cl. str.) miser ; Finf finch ; Frank (sing. also str., pl. also Frankē, nom.

sing. in Switzerland *Franken*, 1st cl. str.; see also 67, towards end) franc (coin); *Frach* (also str. in sing.) silly fellow; *Fürst* ruling prince, prince; *Gef* (earlier in the period also 2nd cl. str.) vain fellow; *Gesell workman, fellow*, and with the exception of *Gemaßl* (69. 2. a), *Gespan* (69. 2. a), and sometimes *Gespons* (69. 2. a) all other masculines of this form (i.e. beginning with *Ge-* and not ending in *-e*) representing persons; *Gnom* gnome; *Graf* count; *Greif* (also 2nd cl. str.) griffin; *Hagestolz* (also 2nd cl. str.) bachelor; *Held* (sometimes still 2nd cl. str. as in M.H.G.) hero; *Herr* (des Herrn, pl. die Herren) Mr., gentleman, lord, master; *Hirt* shepherd; *Höhenzoller* (also str. in sing.; the form *Höhenzollern* is also used as a collective noun inflected as a proper name: *Höhenzollerns Laten* [Wildenbruch's *Quitzows*, 3, 12] *the deeds of the family of Hohenzollern*) a member of the House of Hohenzollern; *Kaffer* (79. 1. a); *Kaferlaf* (see 79. 1. a); *Kumpan'* (usually 2nd cl. str.) companion; *Leu* (dat. and acc. sometimes *Leu*; poetic word for Löwe) lion; *Mensch* human being; *Moor*; *Muselman* (or *Muselmann*, gen. -s, pl. -männer) Mussulman; *Nachfahr* (sing. sometimes str.) successor, descendant; *Narr* fool; *Oberst* (or more rarely *Obrist*; sometimes str. in sing.) colonel; *Ochs* ox; *Pard* panther; *Pfaff* priest, parson (contemptuously); *Pfau* (also 2nd cl. str.) peacock; *Pommer* Pomeranian; *Prinz* son of a *Fürst*; *Proß* vulgar, conceited man of wealth; *Reif* (79. 1. a); *Scheck* dapple (horse); *Schelm* (earlier in the period wk. and sometimes so still; now usually 2nd cl. str.) rogue; *Schenk* cup-bearer; *Schöps* (usually 2nd cl. str.; only rarely wk. as a simple word, but regularly so in compounds, as in *Schöpfensfleisch*) wether; *Schroll* rude, coarse fellow; *Schultheiß* mayor (especially of a small place); *Schwad* (69. 5. c); *Spatz* (also 2nd cl. str., but usually mixed) sparrow; *Spons* (now rare, usually found in humorous language) fiancé; *Sproß* (79. 1. a); *Steinmetz* stone-cutter; *Striglitz* (usually 2nd cl. str.) goldfinch; *Storr* or *Storren* (1st cl. str.) stump; *Stoß* or *Stoßen* (1st cl. str.; both forms now S.G.) stump, block of wood; *Tater* (also 1st cl. str.) gypsy; *Tor* fool; *Tropf* (71. 1. a); *Truchseß* formerly one who placed food before his lord; *Vorfahr* (sometimes str. in sing.) predecessor, ancestor; *Weiß* (sometimes 2nd cl. str.) and *Weib* (also a wk. fem.) kite (bird); *Welf* Guelph; *Zar* (sometimes 2nd cl. str.) czar; *Zwerg* (rarely wk., in compounds, however, often so, as in *Zwergenkönig*—Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, 1, 2, 1; usually 2nd cl. str.) dwarf; also a few names of nationalities and famous families which are usually found only in the plural: *Angeln* Angles, *Cimbern* Cimbri, *Nibelungen* (pl. sometimes *Nibelunge* as in M.H.G.) Nibelungs, &c. Most of the weak nouns denoting nationalities have *e* in the nom. sing. (as *der Däne* Dane, *der Russe* Russian, &c.), and hence belong to 2, above.

a. Also others sometimes drop the *e* of the nom. sing., as *der Schranz* or *Schranze*, &c. *Hirsch* stag, *Lenz* (poetic) *spring-time*, *Mai* May, *März* March, *Salmon* young salmon, *Star* starling, and *Strauß* ostrich, are occasionally weak, but are more commonly 2nd cl. str., *Mai* and *März*, however, are still more commonly uninflected (see 85. a). *Fuchs* fox is sometimes weak in S.G.

b. Some of the words which used to belong here, especially names of living beings, after throwing off the *e* which distinguished them as weak, drifted over into the strong declension, but still show their original weak

inflection in compounds: Greifenalter, Hahnenfuß, Schwanengefang, Sternenhimmel, &c., from Greis, Hahn, Schwan, Stern, &c., all now 3rd cl. str. except the first and last, which are in 2nd cl. str. For fuller statement see 249. II. 1. B. a. Provincially, especially in the S.W., some of these words which represent animals are still as simple nouns inflected weak when used as names of taverns; „zu den drei Schwanen“ (on a sign) ‘At the Three Swans,’ im Hirschén (see a, above), &c. The frequent use of the oblique case ending -en of these weak nouns after prepositions has left the impression that the words also in the nominative end in -en, hence such forms as der Hirschén, der Schwarze Bären, der Pfauen (Spitteler’s *Conrad*, p. 204), all names of taverns.

c. There is a tendency for some of the above list of weak nouns to become strong, which especially manifests itself in the acc.: Da lauerte einst der wilde Urgermane auf den zottigen Bär (instead of Bären) (Raabe’s *A. T.*, chap. xiii). Less frequently in the gen., but sometimes also there: mit des Markgrafs Weib (Hauptmann’s *Schluck und Jau*, p. 24), but des jungen Markgrafen Weib (ib.).

4. Many masc. foreign nouns:

a. Those ending in accented ag, arch, ast, at, et (ft), et, if, il, ist, it, ith, U, ng, og, om, op, ost, ot, ph, pt, rd, tt, urg, ut, only, however, when they represent persons or other living beings: Legāt’ legate, Pilōt’ pilot, &c.

Note. The following exceptions occur: Pēdēll’ (2nd cl. str. or wk.) beadle, Hippogrāph’ (2nd cl. str. or wk.) hippogriff, Leopārd’ (sometimes 2nd cl. str.) leopard; the following masculines, which are wk., though they represent things: Dendrit’ dendrite, Diphthūng’ (also 2nd cl. str.) diphthong, Komēt’ comet, Magnēt’ (usually 2nd cl. str.) magnet, Monolith’ (also 2nd cl. str.) monolith, Planēt’ planet, Satellit’ satellite; the plural Annāl’en annals.

b. Names of peoples having a consonantal ending which is accented upon the last syllable: Kosāf’ Cossack, Sarāž’u(e) Saracen, Bulgār’ Bulgarian, &c. A few which have the accent upon the first syllable or on either (see 61. b): Un’gar (sometimes str. in sing.) Hungarian, Kas’ser (see 79. 1. a), Ta(r)tar’ or Ta(r’)tar Tartar.

c. Masculines ending in accented and, end, ant, ent, isf, graph representing persons or things: Multiplifand’ multiplicand, Doktorand’ one who is passing his doctor’s examination, Konsonant’ consonant, Oktant’ octant, Student’ student, Quotient’ quotient, Obelisk’ obelisk, Telegraph’ telegraph, &c. Neuters having these endings belong to the 2nd cl. str.: Kompliment’, &c.

Note. The above lists of endings are not complete, but in general all foreign nouns accented upon the last syllable which represent persons or living beings are weak except those in 69. 7. b. In familiar conversation, however, this declension is, as a whole, on the decline, especially in the sing.

5. Only several isolated neuters are weak: Autograph’ (also in 2nd cl. str.) autograph, Quadruped’ (also in 2nd cl. str.) quadruped. This group was once larger; see *General Note* under 69. 7. c.

II. 1. In an earlier period of the language and often as late as early N.H.G. the feminines were also inflected in the singular, and forms showing weak inflection here are often still found in poetry, in prose in a very few set expressions, such as auf Erden upon earth, and quite commonly in some dialects: Ein verkeret Herz findet nichts guts | Und der verkereter Zungen ist | wird in vnglück fallen (Prov. xvii. 20). Sah ein Knab’ ein Möslein stehn, | Möslein auf der Heiden (Goethe’s *Heidenröslein*). In S.G. dialect the n of the oblique cases has spread to the nom., so that singular and plural end in -en: Scharf auf den Tisch fallen lassen muß er ja das Bügeleisen, sonst wird die Hoseⁿ nicht glatt

(Rosegger's *Der Bauernspöttler*). Zwischen herab zogen die langen Riesen (timber-slides) (id., *Stadt im Wald*). The dropping of the weak endings in the singular of feminines, according to usage in the literary language, resulted originally from the confounding of the feminines of the weak declension with those of the second class strong, which always remained uninflected in the sing. Thus in a strict sense there is to-day no weak declension of feminine nouns, but only a mixed declension, as they are usually strong in the singular and weak in the plural. In the same manner the feminines of the third class strong, which were once inflected in the sing., as described in 71. 2. c, became uninflected there after the analogy of the second class, and thus all feminines have become uninflected in the sing. On the other hand, of the large number of feminines which were originally in the strong declension the large majority have become weak in the plural, leaving in the strong declension only the few that have already been enumerated under the first three classes.

2. Earlier in the period strong nouns have not infrequently the weak genitive ending *-en* in the plural: voll süßer Worten und Sittenprüden (Goethe). Ich bin so froh und guter Dingen (Chamisso). This usage has entirely disappeared except in a few adverbial expressions: allerorten everywhere, vielerorten in many places, allerwegen everywhere, always.

77. Models of Inflection for the Weak Declension:

Singular.

	Knabe boy, m.	Graf count, m.	Frau woman, f.	Feder pen, f.
N.	der Knabe	der Graf	die Frau	die Feder
G.	des Knaben	des Grafen	der Frau	der Feder
D.	dem Knaben	dem Grafen	der Frau	der Feder
A.	den Knaben	den Grafen	die Frau	die Feder

Plural.

	Knaben	Grafen	Frauen	Federn
N.	die Knaben	die Grafen	die Frauen	die Federn
G.	der Knaben	der Grafen	der Frauen	der Federn
D.	den Knaben	den Grafen	den Frauen	den Federn
A.	die Knaben	die Grafen	die Frauen	die Federn

MIXED DECLENSION.

78. This declension, which is a mixture of the preceding and foreign declensions, falls into two groups—one strong in the sing. and weak in the pl., the other also strong in the sing. but with the foreign ending *s* in the pl.: der Staat state, des Staat(e)s, pl. die Staaten; das Echo echo, des Echo's, pl. die Echo's. There are but few native German words in the mixed declension, but a large number of foreign nouns in both groups, among which there is a tendency, not now so marked as earlier in the period, to drop sometimes the *s* of the gen. sing.: das Drama, des Drama's, or occasionally Drama. Foreign words in this declension do not so frequently take the accent upon the last syllable as in the other declensions.

79. To the group that forms the sing. strong and the plural weak belong:

1. A few native German or naturalized words:

a. Masculines: Ahn (also wk.) ancestor, Auk (pl. also Auke) auk, Bauer (also wk.; always str. in the compounds Maschinenbauer machinist, Orgelbauer organ-builder, Schiffsbauer ship-builder, &c., where it is felt as

derived from *bauen* to build) peasant, *Brosam* (poetic; sometimes neut.; pl. sometimes *Brosame*; nom. sing. sometimes *Brosamen*; rarely fem. with the form *Brosame*, which is, however, historically the correct form, and still survives in the usual pl. *Brosamen*) crumb, *Bur Boer*, *Butt* (69. 1. b) turbot, *Dorn* (83), *Flaum* down, hair (on the face when beginning to appear), *Flitter* (pl. also str.; sometimes fem.) gaudy thing, *Först* (pl. often *Förste*, rarely *Förste*; also fem.) well kept forest, *Fraß* (also wk.) silly fellow, *Gau* (69. 1. b), *Gevatter* godfather, *Hader* old rag, *Halm* (pl. usually *Halme*) blade (of grass), *Holf* and *Hulf* (both also 2nd cl. str.; also neut.) hulk, barge, *Hübel* (also 1st cl. str.) rag, good-for-nothing fellow, *Hummer* (also 1st cl. str.) lobster, *Kaffer* (also wk.; used only contemptuously) peasant, *Kaffer* (also wk.) *Kafir*, *Kaferlaf* (sing. also wk.) albino, *Korteer* laurel, *Lump* (sing. also wk., pl. also *Lumpen*) shiftless, worthless fellow, *Marß* (also fem.) top (naut. term), *Mast* (pl. also *Maste*) mast, *Muskel* (sometimes fem.) muscle, *Nachbar* (sometimes wk.) neighbor, *Nerv* (sometimes wk.; also a wk. fem. *die Nerve*) nerve, *Oberst* (76. I. 3), *Pfau* (sometimes wk., sometimes 2nd cl. str.) peacock, *Pfropf* (nom. also *Pfropfen*; pl. *Pfropfe*, *Pfropfe*, perhaps more commonly *Pfropfen*) cork, *Psalm* psalm, *Raß* (83), *Reif* (pl. sometimes *Reife* as in early N.H.G.; sometimes wk.; used especially in the first meaning; nom. sing. also *Reifen* [1st cl. str.], especially in the second meaning) ring, hoop, circle, *Schmerz* (*des Schmerzes*, &c.; earlier in the period nom. also *Schmerze* or *Schmerzen*, gen. *Schmerzens*, dat. *Schmerzen*, acc. *Schmerzen*) pain, *See* lake, *Sinn* (from early N.H.G. almost up to our time pl. *Sinne* and *Sinnen*, now usually the former) sense, *Spaß* (sometimes wk. and 2nd cl. str.) sparrow, *Sporn* (pl. usually *Sporen*, but also sometimes *Spornen* and *Sporne*, the latter always when it refers to persons, as *Heißsporne hot spurs*) spur, *Sproß* (pl. also *Sprosse*, rarely *Spröffe*, also wk., *der Sprosse*) shoot, offspring, *Staat* state, *Stachel* sting, *Strahl* beam, ray, jet (of water, &c.), *Ungar* (usually wk.) Hungarian, *Untertan* (sometimes wk.) subject (of a king, &c.), *Vetter* (sometimes wk.) cousin, *Zeß* (sometimes wk. and 2nd cl. str.; more commonly a wk. fem., *die Zeße*) toe, *Zierrat* (pl. also *Zierrate*; sometimes fem.) ornament, *Zinß* (pl. sometimes *Zinse*, earlier in the period also a wk. fem. *die Zinse*) interest (on money), and often *Ziegel* (perhaps more frequently 1st cl. str., sometimes fem.) tile. We often find a wk. sing. or a wk. case in the sing., especially the gen., with some of these nouns, as they were formerly wk. The wk. plural in other cases is partly explained by the fact that the words are also fem.

Note. In the language of the common people many words that belong to the 1st cl. str., especially those in *zel* and *zer*, are inflected according to this group. This arises from the feeling that the plural ought in some way to be distinguished from the sing. This tendency appears occasionally in good authors: *spitze Stiefeln* (Goethe). *Das einzige Gefäß, welches noch Fenstern hatte* (Immermann). *Die schlimmsten Gewissensfrüpfeln* (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. xxiii). *Die Splittern | zerbrechender Schäfte* (Scheffel). *Kirrend flegten die Splittern des Wurfgeschosses* (Raabe). The plural *Stiefeln boots* is quite common, but not so much so as a little earlier in the period: *das Paar neuer Stiefeln* (Raabe), *ein Paar hoher Stiefeln* (Spielhagen's *Faustulus*, p. 45).

b. Neuters: *Aug* eye, *Bett* bed, *End* end, *Gatt* (pl. also *Gatte*, *Gattē*)

hole, passage, *Gör* (N.G.; also a wk. fem. *die Göre*) a little child, urchin, brat, *Hemd* (rarely 4th cl. str.) shirt, *Kant* in compounds with the force of *-eck* (as *Vierkant* square, &c.), *Kleinod* (pl. *Kleinö'dien*, also *Kleinö'de*, always when figurative) jewel, *Leidach* (69. 5. d), *Möbel* (pl. earlier in the period *Möbels* and *Möbeln*, of which the latter is still used, but is being gradually replaced by *Möbel*) article or piece of furniture, *Ohr* ear, *Schott* (69. 5. c), *Spant* frame (of ship), *Spind* or *Spinde* (pl. also *Spinde*, the first form is also masc. and the second is also fem.) case (for clothes, books, &c.), *Watt* (69. 5. c), *Weh* (in M.H.G. also *wehe*, a wk. masc., the plural of which still survives; also a wk. fem. *die Wehe* in the meaning *throe of birth*) pain, pang, throe, and *Herz* heart, which inflects: N. and A. *das Herz*, G. *des Herzens*, D. *dem Herzen*, pl. *die, der, den, die Herzen*.

Note. In Austrian and Bavarian dialects, nouns with the diminutive suffix *-el* are declined according to this group: *das Hendl* chicken, pl. *die Hendln*; *das Mandl* male fowl, pl. *die Mandeln*; *das Weibel* female fowl, pl. *die Weibeln*, &c. Even sometimes in serious prose: *eines der lautigsten Liebels der Sammlung* (A. Bettelheim in *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, 29. Nov. 1901, p. 1).

2. Many foreign nouns:

a. Masculines ending in *-on* and *-or* (both short and unaccented in the sing. and long and accented in the pl.): *der Dok'tor* doctor, pl. *die Dok'toren*; *der Dä'mon* demon, pl. *die Dämo'nen*.

Note. Sometimes those in *-on* take a pl. in *-öne*: *die Dämo'ne* instead of the more common *Dämo'nen*. Of course words in accented *-or* and *-on* (see 69. 7. b) belong to the 2nd cl. str.: *der Majör'* major, *des Majörs'*, pl. *die Majö're*; *der Kantön'* canton, *des Kantöns'*, pl. *die Kantö'ne*.

b. Masculines in *-ismus*: *der Katechis'mus*, *des Katechis'mus*, pl. *die Katechis'men*. They do not add an additional *s* in the gen. sing., and they change in the pl. *-ismus* to *-men*.

c. Neuters in *-a* which often drop the *s* of the gen. sing. and usually change *-a* in the pl. to *-en*: *das Drama* drama, *des Drama's* or *des Drama*, pl. *die Dramen*. Sometimes *s* is added to form the pl.: *die Drama's*.

d. Neuters ending in *-um*, *-ium*, *-uum*, *-on* (unaccented) and masculines in unaccented *-us* and *-ius*, all of which take *s* (except those in *us* and *ius*) in the gen., or sometimes remain unchanged, and change in the pl. *-um*, *-on*, and *-us* to *-en*: *das Mus'eum* museum, *des Mus'eums*, pl. *die Mus'e'en*; *das Partizi'pium* participle, *des Partizi'piums*, pl. *die Partizi'pien*; *das Indivi'duum* individual, *des Indivi'duums*, pl. *die Indivi'duen*; *das Distichon* *distich*, *des Distichons*, pl. *die Distichen* (also *Disticha*), &c. Those in *-us* and *-ius* usually remain unchanged in the gen. sing.: *der Nuntius*, *des Nuntius*, pl. *die Nuntien*. A number of very common nouns in *-us* are manifesting a decided tendency to add the endings of the 2nd cl. str. to the foreign ending *-us*, more frequently, however, in the pl.: *der Krokus*, *des Krokus*, pl. *die Krokusse*; *der Omnibus*, *des Omnibus* or *Omnibusses*, pl. *die Omnibusse* or *Omnibus*; like *Krokus* also *Fokus*, *Kaktus*, *Globus* (pl. also *Globen*). This tendency is also marked in a number of proper names in *-us*, *-es*, *-as*, whether used as proper names or as common class nouns: *Brutus*, *Herfules*, *Judas*, pl. *die Brutusse*, *Herfule'sse*, *Judasse*. A number of words

may drop the foreign ending in the sing., and then add *s* in the gen. sing. and *ien* in the plural, or may be inflected according to the 2nd cl. str.: *das Partizip'*, *des Partizips'*, pl. *die Partizi'prien* or *die Partizi'pe*.

Some neuters in *=um* take *s* in the gen. and change *um* to *a* in the plural: *das Masfuli'num*, *des Masfuli'nums*, pl. *die Masfuli'na*. Some of these nouns often drop the *=um* of the sing., then take *s* in the gen., and change the *a* of the pl. to *en*: *das Verb* or *Verbum*, *des Verbs* or *Verbums*, pl. *die Verben* or *Verba*. A few of these neuters in *=um* take *s* in the pl.: *das Album*, *des Albums*, pl. *die Albums* (also *Alben*, *Album*, *Albums*).

e. Neuters formed from neuter adjectives which in the Latin end in *e* in the sing. and *ia* in the pl. The German nouns drop the *e* of the sing., thus ending usually in *-il'* and *-äl'*, and change the Latin pl. *ia* into *ien*: *das Fossil'* fossil, *des Fossils'*, pl. *die Fossi'lien*; *das Mineral'* mineral, *des Minerals'*, pl. *die Minera'lien*, &c. A number of these words are drifting toward the 2nd cl. str.: *das Mineral*, *des Minerals*, pl. *die Mineralien* or *Minerale*.

f. A number of isolated foreign words: the masculines *Amarant'* (also 2nd cl. str.) amaranth, *Aspekt'* view, omen, *Au'gur* (also wk.; pl. *Au'gurn* or *Augu'ren*) augur, *Berber* (also str.) Berber, *Brillant'* (also wk.) brilliant, *Centaur'* (also wk.) centaur, *Dezem'vir* (also wk.) decemvir, *Diamant'* (also wk.; poet. form *Demant* usually 2nd cl. str.) diamond, *Fasan'* (also 2nd cl. str.) pheasant, *Großmogul* (pl. also *=s*) Great Mogul, *Konsul* consul, *Korsar'* (also wk.) pirate, *Pantoffel* (also 1st cl. str.) slipper, *Papagei'* (sometimes wk. and 2nd cl. str.) parrot, *Präsekt'* (also wk. and 2nd cl. str.) prefect, *Rubin'* (usually 2nd cl. str.) ruby, *Satyr* (also wk. and 2nd cl. str.) satyr, *Tribun'* (also wk.) tribune (magistrate), *Trium'vir* (sometimes wk.) triumvir; the neuters, *Insekt'* insect, *Interesse* interest, *Juwel'* (sometimes 2nd cl. str.; sometimes masc. 2nd cl. str.) jewel, *Statut'* statute.

g. A number of neuters in *=ens'* remain unchanged in the sing. and change in the pl. *=ens* to *zien* (*tien*): *das Reagens'* reagent, *des Reagens'*, pl. *die Reagen'zien* (*Reagentien*).

h. A number in unaccented *=os* and *=as* remain usually unchanged in the sing. and change in the pl. the stem and shift the accent upon the suffix: *der Héros* hero, *des Héros*, pl. *die Hero'en*; *der Kustos* custodian, *des Kustos*, pl. *die Kusto'den*; *der Atlas* atlas, *des Atlas* or *des At'lasses*, pl. *die At'lasse* or *Atlan'ten*; *der Pri'mas* primate, *des Pri'mas* (or *des Prima'ten*), pl. *die Prima'ten*, *Pri'mas*, or *Pri'masse*; but *das Rhinó'zeros* rhinoceros, *des Rhinó'zero(ise)s*, pl. *die Rhinó'zero'se*.

80. To the group that takes the *s* in the gen. sing. and throughout the pl. belong:

1. A large number of masc. and neut. words from the French, English, and other modern languages that are still felt as foreign on account of their foreign sound, accent, or endings (often *a*, *o*, *u*, *i*; the French nasal vowels, *ain*, *ein*, *im*, *in*, *on*, *ou*, *um*, *un*, for which see 25; a vowel before a silent final consonant) that cannot easily be fitted into the German declensions: *der Domino* domino, *des Domino's*, pl. *die Domino's*; *das Restaurant* (*Restó:ray'*) restaurant, *des Restaurants'*,

pl. die Restaurants'; der Paletot (*palato:*'), des Paletots', pl. die Paletots'. Also a few feminines belong here: die Lady, pl. die Lady's; die Mama', pl. die Mamas'; die Miß, pl. die Mißes or Mißen; die Villa, pl. die Villas or Villen.

In the choice language of our time there is a marked tendency to replace the foreign pl. ending *s* by German *e* in case of masculines and neuters, and thus place these words in the 2nd cl. str., or in case of feminines to inflect according to the weak declension. A number of these words are already entirely or partially naturalized, especially words from the Low German and English: das Doct (English), des Doct's, pl. die Doct's or Docte. The words ending in a vowel sound or the French nasals offer the most stubborn resistance. Where, however, the nasal vowel has been replaced by a German vowel plus lingual *n*, the words may be inflected according to 2nd cl. str.: das Bataillon (*bataljo:n'*), pl. die Bataillō'ne. If the nasal has been replaced by a vowel + palatal *n* (*y*) the words resist German inflection: das Bassin (*basey'*) basin, pl. die Bassin's.

a. Sometimes the *s* drops out in the sing. of the masculines and neuters, but it stands oftener in the plural: das Plateau (*plato:*'), des Plateaus or sometimes Plateau, pl. die Plateaus.

2. A few German words not really substantives may take an *s* in the gen. sing. and throughout the pl., such as letters of the alphabet, exclamatory particles, other parts of speech used as substantives, or the syntactical fragment of a sentence or a whole sentence used as a loose compound (see 249. II. 2; for rule as to gender see 98. 2. C. e): das A the letter a, des A's, pl. die A's; das Ja the word yes, des Ja's, pl. die Ja's; das Ach the exclamation Oh!, des Ach's, pl. die Ach's. Da gibt's Gutentags und Gutenabends, daß kein Ende ist (Goethe). Ein ganzes Heer von Freilich's, Dennoch's und Ubers (Gutzkow).

The authors of our own time seem to prefer non-inflection here: das A, des A, pl. die A. Das Bild eines frechen Tunichtgut (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, IV. 19); alle Pharisaer und Gernegroß (id., *Stechlin*, XXXII).

In a number of cases there is a tendency more or less strong to inflect such formations according to the regular declensions: alle ihre Stellbischeine (rare) (J. Paul), Taugenichtse (nom. pl.; very common), die Tunichtgute (Fontane's *Pog.*, VIII), Vergißmeinnichte (nom. pl.; quite common); meines Gegenübers, &c. See 69. 2. e and 6.

3. Many words in the regular declensions take colloquially this *s* in the pl., especially so in N.G.: die Mädchen's the girls, die Fräulein's the young ladies, and even in case of wk. nouns: die Herren's the gentlemen, die Jungen's young chaps.

a. This *s* was used in Gothic to form the pl. of all masc. and fem. words, but it had disappeared in H.G. before the O.H.G. period. Although this plural ending is now supported by universal usage in French and English and also the Low German, and is much used colloquially in the North by those speaking High German, it is carefully avoided in choice language.

81. Models of Inflection for Mixed Declension :

Singular.

Staat <i>state</i> , m.	Drama <i>drama</i> , n.	Trupp <i>troop</i> , m.	Villa <i>villa</i> , f.
N. der Staat	das Drama	der Trupp	die Villa
G. des Staat(e)s	des Drama(s)	des Trupps	der Villa
D. dem Staat(e)	dem Drama	dem Trupp	der Villa
A. den Staat	das Drama	den Trupp	die Villa

Plural.

N. die Staaten	die Dramen	die Trupps	die Villen
G. der Staaten	der Dramen	der Trupps	der Villen
D. den Staaten	den Dramen	den Trupps	den Villen
A. die Staaten	die Dramen	die Trupps	die Villen

FOREIGN WORDS.

82. A few foreign words that, on account of the retention of their foreign endings (us, is, um, o, &c.), cannot be declined in any of the preceding declensions remain as they are found in their native language, the form of the nom. sing. being used throughout the sing., and the nom. pl. throughout the pl., the article alone marking the other cases : der (des, dem, den) *Musik* *musician*, pl. die (der, den, die) *Musici* ; der *Cas* *us*, pl. die *Cas* *us*, &c.

Scholars, however, often prefer to decline Latin words throughout as in the original, more frequently so earlier in the period : *Imperfectum*, *Imperfecti*, &c. This is most common with grammatical terms.

a. Note the following irregular formations : der *Gherub*, des *Gherubs*, pl. die *Gherubim* (also *Gherube*, *Gherubs*, *Gherubi*'nen) ; der *Seraph*, des *Seraphs*, pl. die *Seraphim* (also *Seraph*e, *Seraphs*, *Seraphin*, *Seraphi*'nen).

DIFFERENTIATION OF SUBSTANTIVE FORMS.

83. Many nouns have two forms and may be declined according to the one or the other. This redundancy may assume one of four forms : (1) The noun may have two genders for the same form, as *der* or more commonly *die* *Hirse* *millet*. (2) There may be two forms for the same noun, each with a different gender, as *der* *Quast* *tassel* or *die* *Quaste*. (3) The noun may have only one form for the sing., but two in the pl., as *der* *Ort* *place*, pl. *Orter* or more commonly *Orte*. (4) The same word may have in different dialects the same gender, but different forms or declensions or both, which often pass from their respective dialects over into the literary language with or without differentiated meaning : *Schl* *u* *st* (H.G., but now little used) and *Schl* *u* *ch* *t* (L.G., but now well established in the literary language) *cleft*, *gorge* ; *der* *Brunnen* *well*, *fountain*, *Born* (L.G. and M.G. ; poetic) *fount*, *well-spring*. Redundant forms occur often in the spoken and written language, and it is frequently difficult to choose between them, and no harm will be done if the one or other be chosen, unless usage at last settles down upon one of the forms, as in *das* *Bündel* *bundle*, *der* *Docht* *wick*, *der* *Garaus* *finishing stroke*, *der* *Rüfig* *cage*, &c. Double forms have always existed in the language and have resulted in good, for many of them have been put to use by the people who, led by an economic instinct, have given to each form a slightly different shade of meaning. Words also which have only one form for different meanings and applications tend to develop different forms for the different meanings and applications. Also nouns which are derived from the different forms of the same verb or other word tend toward a distinct differentiation in meaning.

Either the difference in gender or in the form of the noun in the singular or plural may cause the difference of meaning, as can be seen by the following illustrative examples :

Der Akt act (in a drama), pl. Akte; die Akte act (of parliament or some other authority), document, pl. die Akten.

Die (Goethe's *Egmont*, 5; this attempt at differentiation has not been generally sustained, now usually das) Ärgernis anger; das Ärgernis that which causes anger, i. e. offence.

Der Balg skin, pl. Bälge; in the meanings *child, thing* (in familiar language referring to a child, boy, or girl), also in a bad sense *brat*, der Balg, pl. Bälge, but now also frequently neuter with plural Bälger, following the analogy of das Kind.

Der Ball, pl. Bälle ball; der Ballen bale.

Der Band volume, pl. Bände; das Band ribbon, pl. Bänder; das Band tie (of friendship, &c.), fetter, pl. Bände.

Der Bauer peasant; das (also der) Bauer bird cage.

Der Brunnen *well, fountain*, ordinary prose word; der Born *well-spring, fount*, poetic word.

Der Bund alliance; das Bund bundle.

Der Chor song sung by the choir, or the choir itself; das Chor place in the church where the choir sits.

Der Christ (pop.; also in *Faust*, Abend) Christmas present, des Christes, pl. die Christe; der Christ Christian, des Christen, pl. die Christen.

Das Denkmal monument, pl. usually Denkmäler, but often Denkmale in choice language.

Der Dienstmann man on the streets who carries bundles for hire, vassal; pl. die Dienstmänner in the first meaning; pl. die Diensteute servants of a house; pl. die Dienstmänner vassals.

Das Ding thing, pl. Dinge; pl. Dinger when speaking of the young of animals, birds, or of girls (as 'queer things'); das, der, or die Ding, or more commonly Dings (a genitive used now for all cases; see 255. II. I. H. c) da (when memory fails to recall a thing or person) *what-you-may-call-it, what-you-may-call-him or -her*. The form Dings is also used of girls: das kleine Dings (Storm's *Ein Doppeltgänger*, p. 215).

Der Dorn thorn; pl. die Dornen used of the bush; pl. die Dorne with reference to different varieties, as die Hage, Kreuz, Schwarz, Weißdorne; pl. Dörner and Dorne of the individual thorns, and also in the mechanical arts of a punch, tongue of a buckle, &c. Usage in all these points, however, is not yet firmly fixed.

Der Druck *print, pressure*, pl. of the simple form usually die Drucke; pl. in compounds usually unmutated where the word is felt as belonging to drucken *to print*, as in die Nachdrucke *pirated editions*, die Abdrucke *reprints*, die Neudrucke *reprints*; pl. in compounds usually mutated where the word is felt as belonging to drücken *to press*, as in die Abdrücke impressions (by stamping), proofs (of photos), copies (of books), Ausdrücke expressions, Einbrücke impressions (of the mind), Händedrücke.

Der Effekt effect, impression, pl. die Effekte; pl. Effekten effects, movables, stocks.

Der Erbe heir; das Erbe inheritance.

Die Erkenntnis perception, comprehension; das Erkenntnis decision of a judge; die Erkenntnis der Schuld geht dem Erkenntnis des Richters voran.

Die Ersparnis saving, pl. Ersparnisse; das Ersparnis that which is saved, pl. Ersparnisse. This differentiation is not yet established.

Der Faden thread, pl. die Fäden; der Faden fathom, pl. die Faden.

Der Fleck and der Flecken both have the meanings *stain, spot, blemish, place*, and *large village*, but the tendency is to use Flecken in sense of *village* and Fleck or Flecken in the other meanings. In the compound Marktflecken *market-town, borough* the form in -en is always used.

Der (sometimes die) *Flur* entrance hall of a house, pl. *die Flure* if masc.; *die Flur* field (poetic), pl. *die Fluren*.

Der *Fuß* foot (of a person), pl. *die Füße*; *zwei Fuß* (see 96. 4. (1)) lang two feet long; *Füße* verschiedener Länge feet (standards of measurement) of different length.

Die *Gans* goose, pl. *die Gänse*; das *Gans* word goose, pl. *die Gans* or *Ganfes*: Das erste *Gans* ist nicht so schön geschrieben wie das zweite. Thus any noun of any gender becomes neut. when it stands not for a person or object but for the written word which represents it.

Der *Gehalt* intrinsic worth or value, also der *Salzgehalt* des *Wassers*, &c.; das (sometimes still der, in accordance with older usage) *Gehalt* salary, pl. *die Gehälter* (sometimes as formerly *Gehalte*).

Das *Geschrei* cry, clamor; das *Geschrei* continued disagreeable screaming; see *b*, below.

Das *Gesicht* face, pl. *die Gesichter*; das *Gesicht* vision, pl. *die Gesichte*.

Das *Gewand* garment; pl. *die Gewänder*; pl. *die Gewande* (poetic); see also 73. *b*.

Die *Gift* (rare except in the compound *die Mitgift*) present; das (see 100. 1) *Gift* poison.

Der *Haft* clasp; *die Haft* arrest.

Der *Halt* support, halt, halting-place, pl. *die Halte*; ein (neut.) *Halt* a stop or end, as in ein *Halt* gebieten to put a stop to. This is a case of only seeming differentiation. The second form is in fact the imperative of the verb *halten*, which is here used as a noun, and hence is neut. according to rule (see 98. 2. C. *e*).

Der *Heide* heathen; *die Heide* heath.

Das *Horn* horn, pl. *die Hörner*; pl. *die Hörne* kinds of horn.

Der *Hut* hat; *die Hut* guard, *die Vorhut* vanguard.

Der *Jude* Jew, in popular language der *Jude* (Raabe's *Höxter und Corvey*, chap. xiv).

Der *Kolben* gunstock, piston; *die Kolbe* facetiously for *head*.

Der *Kunde* customer; *die Kunde* information.

Der *Laden* shutter, pl. *die Laden* (also *Läden*); der *Laden* store, shop, pl. *die Läden*.

Das *Land* land, pl. *die Länder*; pl. *die Lande*, the older pl. form, which still remains (1) in poetry, as in über alle *Lande* (in prose *Länder*); (2) in proper names, as in die *Niederlande* the Netherlands, *die Rheinlande*; (3) to designate the different divisions of one political whole: *die deutschen Lande*.

Das *Licht* light, candle; pl. *die Lichter* lights; pl. *die Lichte* candles.

Der *Lump* poor, ragged, worthless fellow, pl. *die Lumpen*, also *Lumpe*; der *Lumpen* rag.

Der *Mann* man, pl. *die Männer*; pl. *die Mannen* warriors, vassals; pl. *Mann* (see 96. 4. (1)); pl. *Leute* (see 96. 9).

Der *Mensch* human being; das *Mensch* wench, pl. *die Menschen*.

Der *Mittag* noon; das (also der) *Mittag* dinner.

Der *Moment* moment (of time); das *Moment* moment (consequence, weight).

Der *Mond* moon, satellite, month, now 2nd cl. str., was also weak earlier in the period. The weak gen. still occurs in the first meaning in compounds in poetic style, as in *Mondenglanz*. In the last meaning *Mond* is still sometimes weak in poetic style, especially in the plural.

Das *Moos* moss, pl. *die Moose*; das *Moos* (or *Ried*) swampy land, pl. *Möser* (*Niede*).

Die *Mutter* mother, female screw; pl. *die Mütter* mothers, *die Muttern* (earlier here also *Mütter*) female screws.

Der *Ost* east wind, *Nord* north wind, *Süd* south wind, &c., all with a pl. in *e*; der *Osten* the East, *Westen* the West, *Norden* the North, *Süden* the South, all indicating a section of country. Both forms may also often be used for the points of the compass, the shorter forms especially in maritime expres-

sions: Der Wind kam rein aus Ost(en). In plain prose it would be more common to say Ostwind, Westwind, &c. for the winds.

Der (sometimes das) Pack or Packer pack; das Pack rabble.

Die Pfirs(i)che or more commonly der Pfirsich (pl. die Pfirsiche) peach (fruit); der Pfirsich peach-tree, more commonly Pfirsichbaum.

Das Produkt' production, pl. die Produkte productions of the mind; pl. die Produkten productions of the soil, produce. This distinction is common in familiar language, but the pl. Produkte is the only form used in the literary language for all these meanings except in compounds: Produkte, but Produktenhändler, Produktenmarkt.

Die Ratte (or less frequently Raze) rat; der Raß, now usually broader in meaning than Ratte, including animals of a similar nature.

Der Rest that which is left, ruin, pl. die Reste, pl. die Reste or Reste remnants of cloth in a dry goods store.

Die Sau sow, pl. die Säue (early N.H.G.) sows, swine, in the latter meaning still Säue in expressions following more or less accurately biblical utterances, as in Man muß die Perlen nicht vor die Säue werfen (G. Ompteda's *Eysen*, chap. xxxiii); (eighteenth century) pl. die Säue sows, domestic swine, Säuen wild swine; now the wk. pl. is usually used for domestic sows and wild swine.

Das Scheit piece of wood; pl. Scheite or Scheiter pieces cut for a purpose, as to burn, &c., pl. Scheiter pieces broken by violence: das Schiff geht zu Scheitern.

Der Schenk cup-bearer; die Schenke beer house.

Der Schild shield; das Schild shop sign.

Die Schwell swelling, or more commonly die Geschwell; der Schwell bombast.

Der Schurz apron for men, pl. Schürze; die Schürze apron for women and children.

Der See lake, pl. die Seen; die See sea.

Die Spalte (sometimes der Spalt in the first meaning) split, column (in a newspaper); der Spalt (pl. die Spalte) split in a figurative sense, contentious division, quarrel, especially common in the compound Zwiespalt dissension.

Der Sprosse or Sproß offspring, scion; die Sprosse round of a ladder.

Der Stod stick, cane, story (of a house), pl. die Stöcke canes, pl. Stöcke or Stod stories: Spazierstöcke walking sticks, but ein Haus von drei Stöcken or Stod a house of three stories, and Das Haus ist drei Stod hoch.

Der Teil part; das Teil share.

Der Tropfen drop; der Tropf dull, stupid fellow.

Der Trupp gang, unorganized crowd, pl. die Trupps (or Truppe); die Truppe organized company or troop.

Das Tuch piece of cloth (handkerchief, shawl, &c.), pl. die Tücher; pl. Tuche kinds of cloth.

Eine Uhr a clock, watch, pl. die Uhren; ein (neut., uninflected) Uhr (uninflected) one o'clock, pl. zwei Uhr two o'clock, &c.

Der Verdienst wages; das Verdienst merit, desert.

Die Walnuß (pl. Walnüsse) walnut (fruit); der Walnuß (pl. Walnüsse) or more commonly der Walnußbaum walnut (tree).

Die Wehr defence; das Wehr dam (in a river).

Das Wort word with reference to meaning in connected discourse, pl. die Worte; pl. die Wörter words apart from their meaning: Er sprach in berechneten Worten, but Das Telegramm hat 16 Wörter. This distinction is not yet universally observed, Worte seeming to be the favorite in both meanings.

Der Wurm worm; das Wurm helpless babe, 'poor thing' (man or woman).

Das Zeug material, substance, stuff, das Zeug (gen. now used for all cases; see 255. II. 1. H. c) stuff in a contemptuous sense.

The similarity in form is sometimes merely accidental: das Tor gate, der Tor fool; die Mark mark (coin), das Mark marrow, &c.

a. There is a tendency to make a difference between the neut. pl. in *er* and that in *er*, when they both occur with the same word. The former has in a number of cases collective force, denoting a number of connected parts or

related individuals, the latter form has separating, individualizing force : *das Wort* word ; pl. *Worte* words in connected discourse with reference to their meaning ; pl. *Wörter* words as individuals without reference to their connection in one sentence, as *Wörterbuch*, lit. word-book, *dictionary* ; *das Band* tie, ribbon, pl. *Bände* ties of affection which bind us together, pl. *Bänder* ribbons. Thus also *das Land* country ; pl. *Länder* different divisions of one country, pl. *Länder* countries. Thus also a number of words found in the above lists. The difference between words in *er* and *e* is also sometimes merely a matter of style ; see 73. *b*. The forms in *e* are older than those in *er*, and hence often naturally incline to use in poetical or less common expressions. Sometimes the older and newer form for the pl. are both used without difference of meaning, contrary to the above mentioned tendencies, but in accordance with former usage : *ein Telegramm von 16 Worten* (or more commonly *Wörtern*).

b. There is a tendency to distinguish between the meaning of words of the form *Ge*—*e* and on the other hand *Ge*—*u*. The form *Ge*—*e* (never mutating the stem vowel) has a more abstract meaning, indicating a repetition or continuation of some action, or often implying contempt or dislike for the performance, and hence on account of its abstract nature without a pl., while the form *Ge*—*u* (always mutating the stem vowel if capable of it) has a more concrete meaning, and admits thus of a plural : *das Quellengerausche* the noise of the murmuring spring (which unceasingly murmurs on), *das Geklirre der Tassen und Schüsseln* the rattling of the cups and dishes (in washing), *das Gesinge* tedious singing ; *das Getue* an affected noisy manner that proceeds about doing something unimportant, as if it were of great importance (not always, however, in a disparaging sense : *Ihr Benehmen war ein wenig feß, das konnte er sich nicht verhehlen, aber wie so ganz frei von Dreistigkeit war diese Redheit, wie so ganz ohne Gefallsucht ihr gefälliges Getue und Gehabe*—Wildenbruch's *Die heilige Frau*, p. 130), *das Geklopfe* a continual unpleasant knocking or hammering, *das Gelaufe* a continual unpleasant running to and fro, but *das Geräusch* the noise, pl. *die Geräusche*, &c. The form *Ge*—*e* is usually made directly from the stem of the verb without mutation, but if the verb itself is mutated the vowel of the derivative noun must of course also be correspondingly modified : *das Gehämmere*, &c. from *hämmern*, &c. The *er*, however, sometimes distinguishes the one form from the other, although the distinction cannot appear in the stem vowel : *das Geschreie* continued disagreeable screaming, but *das Geschrei* a cry, clamor, &c.

Note. But the distinction between these forms cannot be made throughout, as, according to present usage, *b*, *d*, *g*, and usually *f*, do not as a rule stand as a final letter in these formations, and hence *e* must be added, thus destroying in all words not capable of mutation the difference of form and hence the possibility of making a distinction in meaning : *Getreide* grain with *e* although with concrete meaning, &c. On the other hand, the *e* of the abstract form usually drops out after *er* and *er*, according to the general rule that *e* cannot stand after *er* and *er*, and thus the abstract form cannot here be distinguished from the more concrete : *Geklümper* drumming (upon the piano). The *e*, however, is now often added here in spite of the rule, as it seems necessary to preserve the shade of meaning : *das Gewinsele* (Immermann), *Gehämmere* (Fontane).

c. There is a tendency to differentiate the meaning of words in *nis* according to their gender, the feminines assuming more abstract, the neuters more concrete meaning : *das Hindernis* obstacle, but *die Befugnis* authority. Compare also *Erfenutnis* above. There is, however, much irregularity and fluctuation here.

INFLECTION OF PROPER NOUNS.

84. Proper nouns as well as common nouns were once inflected str. and wk., but almost all traces of the wk. declension in names of persons have disappeared from the literary language except the rather colloquial dat. and

acc. ending *en* (see 87) and the corrupted gen. *enß* (86.2.a), which is in fact a str. gen. added to a wk. gen. Other weak forms are still occasionally found: Was ist die ganze schleswig-holsteinische Geschichte neben der Geschichte des Alten Friesen? (Fontane's *Der Tunnel über der Spree*, chap. iv). Mit des alten Friesen eigenhändigem Krüdstock (id., *Vor dem Sturm*, III. chap. ii). Mit des Herzogs Morizen Obersten, dem Herrn Sebastian von Walwig (Raabe's *Unseres Herrgotts Kanzlei*, chap. vi). Er redete auch den jüngsten Urseulen, sein Vaten- und Enkelkind, an in einer Weise, die mich besonders belustigte (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xi). The old weak gen. has also been preserved in a number of compounds: Ottendorf, Luise(n)str. Outside of these compounds the gen. of these names is *Ottos*, *Luise(n)s*. A few other traces of weak inflection in the names of persons and families are given in 93.1.b.(6). The ending *en* is best preserved in the dat. and acc. of unmodified names; see 87. Though this form in *en* is now felt as a weak case form, it was originally in all strong masculine proper names an ending borrowed from the acc. of the strong adjective declension, as in *diesen*, *guten*. Later it spread to the dat., as it was taken for a weak case ending, which is the same for the acc. and dat. This misconception was all the more natural, as many masculine and feminine proper names were originally weak and hence had *en* in the dat. and acc. Thus this *en*, now used uniformly in the dat. and acc. of masc. and fem. proper names, had a twofold origin.

The str. declension has also been much reduced, and there is, as will be seen below, much fluctuation in present usage, pointing to still farther decay. There is a general tendency in all classes of proper nouns and in titles to drop the *s* of the gen. whenever preceded by an article or other modifying word that marks distinctly the case. With names of persons this can now be considered a rule.

85. Those proper nouns that have the article always before them—i. e. the names of natural divisions of the earth's surface (as rivers, lakes, seas, mountains, plains, forests, &c.), the names of countries of the fem. or masc. gender, names of newspapers, works of art, months, nations, peoples, parties, dynasties—were originally, and in part are still, common class nouns, and hence are in general declined, as common class nouns of the same form would be: *der Rhein* (i. e. *the river*) the Rhine, *des Rheins*, &c.; *der Brocken* (peak in the Harz Mts.), *des Brockens*, &c.; *die Alpen* the Alps, *der Alpen*, &c.; *die Schweiz* Switzerland, *der Schweiz*, &c.; in den letzten Tagen *des Augusts* (Raabe); *der Preuße* the Prussian, *des Preußen*, &c.; *der Karolinger* Carolingian, *des Karolingers*, &c.

a. The names of months, newspapers, works of art, literary productions, organizations, now more generally drop the *s* of the gen.: *Am Abend des 22. August* (*Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, 18. Sept. 1901); *der Redakteur des Coriolan*, *des Bund*, &c., editor of the *Coriolan*, *Bund*, &c.; *der Dichter des Faust* the author of *Faust*; *der Gruß des „Schubertbund“* the greeting from the Schubertbund (musical organization), &c. Also foreign names of rivers and mountains as a rule drop the *s* in the gen.: *die Höhen des Monte Cavo* the heights of Monte Cavo, *das Tal des untern Rhône*, &c. This usage, though strongly condemned by grammarians, is spreading even to German geographical names: *für einen Anwohner des Stechlin* (lake) (Fontane's *Stechlin*, III), *auf dem Gipfel des Höhenstaufen* (Raabe's *Pechlin*, chap. xiv), *am Ufer des Neckar* (ib., II, chap. vii), *des Speßart* (forest), &c. Examples can even be found in textbooks on geography. It is a natural

impulse towards uniformity, as all other proper nouns drop *s* in the gen. when preceded by an article (see 86. 1).

b. The names of the months often drop the article and remain uninflected after *Anfang, Mitte, Ende*: *Ende Mai* the last of May. See 94. 3. A. *b.*

c. The great mass of foreign names of peoples and tribes have been conformed to German inflection, but those which still retain endings (*a, i, o, u, &c.*) which resist inflection according to German models take an *s* in the gen. sing. and throughout the plural, or perhaps more commonly remain uninflected, especially in the plural, the article alone indicating the case and number: *der Eskimo, des Eskimo(s), pl. die Eskimo(s)*.

86. 1. Names of persons and all political divisions, as countries, states, counties, cities, and the like, do not in general take an article except when modified by an adjective. They take an *s* (never *es*) in the gen. sing. when they are not preceded by an article or pronominal adjective, but take no ending when an article, pronominal adjective, or appositive precedes: *Wilhelms Gut*, but *der Gut des kleinen Wilhelm*; *Annas Gut*, or *der Gut der Anna*; *die Universitäten Deutschlands*, but *die Armeen des mächtigen Deutschland*; *die Einwohner der Hauptstadt Berlin*; *das Kind des Schuhmachers Schmidt*.

If the person has two or more names, the last one only takes the *s*: *die Regierung Friedrich Augusts*; *Marie von Ebner-Eschenbachs gesammelte Schriften, &c.*

a. If a masculine noun in the genitive modified by a preceding article or other pronoun, adjective, or an appositive, precede the noun upon which it depends, it usually takes an *s*, unless it ends in a vowel or a sibilant: *des großen Karls Laten* (but *die Laten des großen Karl*), *des Adolfs Burgers Haus*, *des verrathenen Arthurs Vater* (Lienhard's *König Arthur*, 5), *des Pastors Friedrichs Sohn*, but *des geliebten Goethe Lieder*, *des hässlichen Iherkses Schmähungen*. We still, however, sometimes find the *s* in the genitive also when it follows the noun: *Er (der Mond) guckte mild in die Kutsche des zehnten Karls* (Charles X of France) (Raabe's *Hungerpastor*, chap. vi). The *s* in the genitive in all these cases is the survival of an older usage which always required an *s* in the genitive of strong masculine names (see 89). Now, however, not even the above mentioned remnant of this rule is observed closely: *des Heinzl Mutter* (Meinhardt), *des alten Sparr Augen* (Wildenbruch), *des alten Petersen Tochter* (Fontane).

In case of neuter names of countries, continents, and cities the genitive ending is much better preserved, occurring not infrequently even when it follows the governing noun: *aus einer größeren Stadt des mittleren Deutschlands* (Storm's *Eine Malerarbeit*, vol. ii. p. 65), *die drei berühmtesten Genien des jetzigen Europas* (Lienhard's *Münchhausen*, 1). *Hier (in L'Adultera) betritt er (Fontane) den Boden des modernen Berlins* (A. Bartel's *Deutsche Dichtung*, p. 214).

b. If a proper name is used as a common class noun it may, like class nouns, be inflected in the sing. and pl.: *die Reden unseres Ciceros* the speeches of our great orator (lit. our Cicero), *die Ciceros*, *die Cromwelle und Bismarck der Zukunft*. But like a proper noun it is often uninflected after an article: *eine alte Auflage des Bäderer* (Rodenberg's *Klostermanns Grundstück*, III).

2. For names of persons and places not preceded by an article, the following variations of the general rule for the formation of the gen. occur:

a. Names of persons ending in a sibilant *s, ß, sch, x, z*, may

remain unchanged in the gen. sing., adding, usually, however, the apostrophe: *Voss' Gedichte*, nach *Ventz' Weisung* (Fontane), von *Ines' kleinen kräftigen Händen* (Storm), die *Stimmen von Felix' Kameraden*, *Agnes' Hochzeit* (G. Hirschfeld), das *Bildnis aus dem dunkeln Winkel der Stubenstube Adam Olearius'* (Jensen), *Isolde Kurz*, die *Tochter Hermann Kurz'* (Bartels' *Deutsche Dichtung*, p. 202). Many prefer *s* after those in *s* and *sch*: *Busch's Erzählung* (Minor), beim *Anblick Grobigsch's* (Hartleben). Some use in case of all sibilants the mixed gen. ending *enß*, a form once common, but apparently much less used to-day, more frequent, however, with Christian names than surnames: an *Ludwig Pietzsch's Seite*, die *Stimme Felixen's*, *Hansen's* und der *Romantiker „Waldeinsamkeit“* (Raabe), auf *Hansen's Bitten* (Hauptmann).

Note. In case of names which follow the governing noun the gen. *s* is sometimes avoided by using the article: *die Bücher des Felix*. In S.G. the article and *von* is used in colloquial language: *die Bücher vom Max*. In general, however, the article is avoided before an unmodified name, although it is regularly used if modified: *die Bücher des kleinen Felix*. In case of surnames the use of the article becomes natural, when a title or some descriptive noun is inserted between the article and the name: *die Reden des Altertumsforschers Curtius*.

b. Fem. in *-e* may add *-s* or *-enß*: *Maries* or *Mariens Hut*.

c. Foreign nouns ending in a sibilant usually prefer the article, and thus remain uninflected, as *die Germania des Tacitus* the *Germania* of Tacitus; or they may less frequently be treated as a German word, *Tacitus' Germania*, or, in case of a few, having thrown off their foreign ending, may take *enß*: *Horazens Oden* the odes of Horace, instead of *die Oden des Horatius*; *Aneen's*, gen. of *Aneas*, &c.

d. Foreign names of persons do not now retain their original Latin or Greek declension except in a few biblical names: N. *Jesu Christi*, G. *Jesu Christi*, D. *Jesu Christo*, A. *Jesum Christum*; das *Evangelium Matthäi* the gospel of Matthew, &c. Even here the rule for German nouns is often preferred: *Christus' Geburt*, &c.

e. As it is not customary for names of places to insert *en* before *s* of the gen., such names of places as end in a sibilant form no gen., but express this relation by the prep. *von of*: *die Straßen von Paris*, but *die Straßen Hamburgs*, or *Hamburgs Straßen*. In poetry, however, the apostrophe may be used after sibilants: an *Kolchis' Küste* (Grillparzer's *Argonauten*, 2), für *Hellas' Heil und Glück* (ib.).

87. Names of places and persons take no sign for the dat. and acc. in choice language, but earlier and still in the classical period the ending *-en* for dat. and acc. sing. was quite common in case of unmodified names of persons. This *-en* survived in the colloquial language and has again become quite common in recent literature which reflects colloquial speech: *Das tranken wir immer bei Bismarcken* (Sudermann's *Es lebe das Leben*, p. 60). *Als Frau Imme öffnete, stand Rudolf auf dem kleinen Flur und sagte, daß er Watern holen solle und Hedwigen auch* (Fontane's *Stechlin*, chap. xiv). For the origin of the forms in *-en* see 84.

88. In a number of instances words which are in an oblique case are not felt as such, and are inflected as if they were simple stems:

1. The many geographical names in *-en* are in fact datives: *Neuenkirchen*, *Sachsen*, from older *ze* (= *zu*) *der niuwun kirchun*, *ze den Sachsen*. They originated in prepositional phrases, later the preposition and article disap-

peared and the dative became the stem of the new form: die Hauptstadt Sachsen.

2. Thus an original gen. is often not felt as such and treated as a simple stem: Wir werden uns nächsten Johanni (St. John's day) wieder sprechen (Spielhagen's *Was will das werden*, II. ii). Bis künftige Johannis. Here Johanni, or Johannis, is a masc. gen. treated as an acc., the gender being masc. after the analogy of the word Tag understood, or fem. after the analogy of Weihnachtszeit Christmas-time, Pfingstzeit Pentecost.

89. Formerly and still in the classical period the gen. which was preceded by an article usually took an s: Die Leiden des Jungen Werthers *The Sufferings of Young Werther* (title of one of Goethe's works).

90. Colloquially, especially in the North, masculine and feminine common nouns (the latter of which according to the general rule are not inflected in the sing.) are often treated as proper nouns, the substantive dropping the article and taking an s in the gen. and sometimes (e)n (see 87) in the dat. and acc., when it refers to a definite person: Vater kommt. Wenn sie Kaisers Geburtstag feiern (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. vii). Du bist Vaters Tochter (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act I). Ja, deine Tochter und Vaters bin ich (ib.). Nachbars Hänschen, Schusters Dörchen, Mamas (Mutters, Tantes) Zimmer. Ich werde das Muttern sagen. Als Frau Summe öffnete, stand Rudolf auf dem kleinen Flur und sagte, daß er Vatern holen solle und Hedwigen auch (Fontane's *Stecklin*, chap. xiv). Ich werde Großmutter bitten. Likewise fem. titles: Majestäts Befehl His Majesty's order.

A title with a preceding article is sometimes treated as a name, if it is used as such: des Defan (Marriot's *Der geistliche Tod*, chap. ii), mit den Sachen des Doktor (Hauptmann's *Friedensfest*, p. 15), but more commonly with inflectional s: die Stimme des Doktors (ib., p. 48), des Doktors Hand (ib., p. 52).

91. The residence of an individual is often written in one word with his name: Herr Lammers-Bremen Mr. Lammers from Bremen; Direktor Wirth-Plözensee bei Berlin Director Wirth from Plötzensee near Berlin. Formerly von was placed before the name of the place. The von is not now used, as it might be construed as representing a title of nobility.

INFLECTION OF TITLES.

92. A full treatment of the proper titles which must be given to people of different social standing can be obtained in any of the numerous Briefsteller which usually treat this delicate subject.

The leading points as to the inflection of these titles are as follows:

1. When a title (or titles) not preceded by an article stands before a name of a person, the name alone is inflected, except the one title Herr *Mr.*, which is always inflected: Kaiser Wilhelms Schloß Emperor William's castle, Professor Dr. A. Kuhns Vorlesungen the lectures of Professor A. Kuhn, Ph.D. Das Leben Herzog Bernhards. Er sprach von Präsident Grant, von Graf Rechberg. But Herrn Schmidts Hut, der Hut des Herrn Schmidt, der Sohn des Kaufmanns Herrn Schmidt. Earlier in the period Herr was treated like other titles and was left uninflected when not preceded by an article: Machte Er Herr Justen (see 87) den Kopf nicht warm (Lessing's *Minna*, I, 2).

a. Exceptions occur not infrequently when a gen. follows its governing noun. Here the title and also the name if the latter has an appended title

(see 3, below) and does not itself end in a sibilant have quite frequently inflection instead of the name alone having it: die Medaillen Papsts Clemens des Siebenten (Goethe), ein Brief Königs Ludwig (*Kölnische Zeitung*), als Nachfolger weiland Erzherzogs Wilhelm (*Über Land und Meer*), die Tochter des alten, als halb toll bekannten Herrn von Sparr, des Jägermeisters weiland Kurfürsten Joachim des Ersten (Wildenbruch), bis zum Monumente Königs Mar II. (Hans Hopfen).

2. a. When the title or other similar modifying noun standing before the name is preceded by an article, it may be inflected, or more commonly remains unchanged, the name itself *usually* remaining without inflection: die Werke des Professors or Professor Schmidt, die Kochstudien des Fräulein Klara, der Brief des Oheim Grünebaum (Raabe), mit Hilfe des Oheims Grünebaum (ib.), unter dem Kommando eines Häuptling namens Fiamen (*Kölnische Zeitung*), an Bord des Schiff (or Schiffes) Möwe, oberhalb des Kap Bismarck, das Ei des Vogel Koch im Märchen Sindbads des Seefahrers (Raabe).

When the gen. precedes, the name sometimes has s and is sometimes without it: meines Freundes Papphoffs Regenschirm (Raabe's *Frühling*, chap. iv), des Onkel Heinrichs Stimme (Storm's *Carsten Curator*, p. 144), des Stadttrompeter Rasmann Blasen (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, 6. Stück).

Inflection of the title is more common in the wk. declension: der Sohn des Grafen Reckberg, but an Bord des „Prinz Waldemar“ (boat).

Earlier in the period and sometimes still we find inflection of both title and name, even when the gen. follows: die Lobsprüche des Kurfürsten Albrechts (Lessing), auf der staubigen Chaussee des Vettters Wassertreters (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. xxxvi). Sometimes we find the inflection of the name alone: der Klang der Hausglocke des Doktor Dachreiters (Raabe's *Pechlin*, II. chap. xix).

Note. In the rare case where a title in the gen. is preceded by a dependent gen. which is modified by an article or pronominal adjective, the governing title must of course drop its article. In this case usage does not commonly require a gen. ending on the governing gen., as the force of the article or pronominal adjective before the preceding dependent gen. is felt, but more conscientious writers use the gen. ending here: an Bord Seiner Majestät Schiff (instead of Schiffes) Möwe, der liebenswürdige Kommandant S[einer] M[ajestät] Kreuzers Falte (*Kölnische Zeitung*). Others prefer here to replace the governing gen. by a dat. after von: an Bord von Seiner Majestät Schiff Möwe.

b. If several titles preceded by an article stand before a name, usually only the first title is inflected, but there is here much fluctuation in usage, the tendency, however, being towards non-inflection: die Vorlesungen des Professors Hofrat Schmidt; des Herrn Staatsministers von Stein; die Mitteilung unseres verehrten Herrn Direktors Doktor Rosenberg (Hirschfeld); des Herrn Professor Niedermöller (M. Dreyer); das großherzige Entgegenkommen des Geheimen Medizinalrats Professors Dr. Külz (*Weser Zeitung*); an Stelle des Geheimen Medizinalrat Prof. Dr. Henoch (*National-Zeitung*); der Tod des Dr. Baron Zaromir Mundy. The title Herr, as in the second and third examples, is always inflected, as is also an adjective which stands in the title, as in the fifth and sixth examples.

3. An appended title is inflected whether the preceding name is declined or not: die lange Regierung Friedrichs des Großen, or die lange

Regierung des Königs Friedrich des Großen. Some prefer to drop & in the first example, as the inflection of the appended title clearly marks the case relation: der Bruder Friedrich des Großen (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, II. 14). The title alone may be inflected in case of junior, senior: auf dem Bette Puzemann juniors (Raabe's *Deutscher Adel*, chap. xx), Raabe juniors Stimme (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, p. 157). We also often hear: die Stimme Raabes junior. If the name is preceded by an article the title here remains uninflected: das Hochzeitgeschenk des Herrn Eckart junior (Baumbach's *Der Schwiegersohn*, chap. xi).

4. Such words as Freund, Vater, &c., are often treated as titles: Das ist Freund Müllers Frau.

5. The name following von in titles of nobility originally marked the residence or locality, but it has largely lost its force to-day and is felt as a part of the name, and hence the & is appended to it: Otto von Bismarcks Reden. When, however, the governing noun precedes, we find the part of the name before the von inflected according to older usage: das Leben Göthes von Verlichingen (Goethe), die Braut Friedrichs von Glimmern (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. xii), ein Jugendporträt Wilhelms von Oranien (*Kölnische Zeitung*, No. 1, 1895). Present usage also allows here inflection at the end of the entire name: im Zeitalter Otto von Bismarcks (Fontane's *Cécile*, XIII), zwei Briefe Wilhelm von Humboldts (*Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, 1901, No. 84). Das ist eine Beleidigung des Ansehens unseres Väterchens und Professor von Mangenhofens (G. Ompteda).

6. The title Frau is placed before the name and rank of the husband, and Frau or Fräulein before a designation of relationship, and usually alone have inflection, if the article or a pronominal precedes: (die) Frau Schmidt, gen. der Frau Schmidt, &c., but Frau Schmidts Sohn; (die) Frau Professor, (die) Frau Doktor, (die) Frau Oberst, &c.; Ihre Frau Mutter, Ihre Frau Tante, Ihr (Ihre) Fräulein Tante, &c. Earlier in the period =in was often added to the title and still occasionally occurs: die Frau Professorin (Goethe). In a number of cases the old ending =in is still usually employed: (die) Frau Rätin, (die) Frau Geheime Rätin, (die) Frau Senatorin, die Gräfin or die Frau Gräfin, die Herzogin or die Frau Herzogin, die Königin or die Frau Königin, die Kaiserin Friedrich the wife of Emperor Frederic, &c.; Ihre Frau Gemahlin, Ihre Frau Schwägerin, Ihr (Ihre) Fräulein Schwägerin, &c. If the title is preceded by an adjective, as in the second example, it must be inflected.

Instead of Frau or Fräulein the fem. article is often placed before the name, which in popular language often adds in (usually corrupted to en) and in N.G. dialect also sche: die Marlitt Miss Marlitt (the pseudonym of a well-known authoress), die Schulzen (corruption of Schulzin) Mrs. Schulz, die Beckerin or Beckersche Mrs. Becker, die Frau Pastorsche (Raabe's *Odfeld*, chap. xxii). Formerly in was added to the name also in the literary language: die Gottschedin (authoress, 1713-62), die Karfschin (poetess, 1722-91).

In case of males Herr is placed before the designation of relationship or rank, and is always inflected: Ihr Herr Vater, Ihres Herrn

Waters; Ihr Herr Bruder, &c.; Ihr Herr Gemahl, &c.; Ihr Herr Chef your employer; der Herr Oberst, &c., Herr Oberst (direct address); der Herr Professor, &c., Herr Professor (direct address).

PLURAL OF NAMES OF PERSONS AND PLACES.

93. There is considerable diversity of usage in the formation of the plural of names of persons and places:

1. The favorite formation in familiar language is either to add *s* (often *ens* after sibilants) to the name or title used as a name, or less frequently to leave the name undeclined in all the cases: Müllers haben Besuch The Müllers have company. Wir gehen zu Schulzens, zu Doktors We are going to Schulze's, to the family of the doctor. Zwei Wolfs, zwei Marien (or very commonly Marien according to *b.* (2) below), two persons by the name of Wolf, Mary; die beiden Elisabeths or Elisabeth (or often Elisabethen and sometimes Elisabethe according to *b.* (2)), but usually die beiden Agnes, Ines with non-inflection, to avoid the repetition of the sibilant, non-inflection being also more common here than the form in *-en* according to *b.* (2); die vielen Ludwig in der französischen Geschichte, im Familienhause der Weyland (Raabe's *Wunnigel*, chap. i).

Geographical names especially remain uninflected in the pl.: die beiden Frankfurt the two cities of Frankfurt, die beiden Mecklenburg (or Mecklenburgs) the two Mecklenburgs.

If the title used as a name is *wk.*, the plural will end in *ens*: Präsidents treten heute eine kleine Reise ins Gebirge an The family of the president starts out on a little trip into the mountains to-day.

a. In such examples as Wir gehen zu Schulzes the *es* is now felt as a plural ending, although the noun originally was a *gen.* dependent upon a governing noun understood such as Haus or Familie. In S.G. popular language the *gen.* of the *sing.* article in the reduced form of *'s* is here still placed before the name, even though the verb plainly shows that the noun is felt as a plural: 's Hartmanns begleiteten uns. In other cases, however, as in die beiden Bertas the *s* is a real plural ending.

b. Many prefer to inflect names of persons according to the regular declension for common nouns, as follows: (1) Most of the masculines end in the plural in *e*: die Wesse, Friedrichs, der letzte der Weylands (Raabe's *Wunnigel*, chap. ii) *the last of the Weylands*, &c. Earlier in the period the plural of Hans John was weak, but it is now usually Hänse, or when used as a common class noun Hänse (see 71. 1. c. (2)). (2) Most feminines take the weak plural ending *en* except those in *a* and *y*, which take *s* quite uniformly: die Marien, Mathilden, Adelheiden, but die Bertas, Annys, &c. Those ending in a consonant have sometimes a strong plural according to the 2nd cl.: die Elisabethe instead of the more common *wk.* form Elisabethen. Diminutives in *-chen* and *-el* form the plural according to the 1st cl. str.: die Hännchen, Marthel. (3) Those masculines ending in *-e*, *-el*, *-en*, *-er*, also all diminutives in *-chen* and *-el*, take no ending in the plural: die Luther, Schlegel, Karlchen, &c. (4) Foreign nouns may remain uninflected, but may also add *s* or *-e*, and some in *-o* may add *-nen* or *-ne*: die Noah, Alba, &c.; die Cagliostro, &c.; die Verqise, &c.; for those in *-as*, *-es*, *-us*, see 79. 2. d; die Catone, Catonen, or Catos, &c. (5) As a rule names of persons are not inflected according to the 3rd and 4th classes of the strong declension, as there is at least in the literary

language an aversion to mutation here, but in colloquial speech mutated plurals can also be found after the analogy of common nouns: die Wölfe in der Schule, die Quäste (pl. of Quast) (Fontane's *Wanderungen*, vol. I. chap. Garz). These mutated plurals are not infrequently used in a sarcastic or humorous sense: Es wird gewünscht, daß sämtliche Kortmänner (pl. of Kortmann) in Zukunft ihre unverfälschten Zudringlichkeiten gefälligst unterlassen (Stader). Sie ist eine Grünebaum, und die Grünebäume können im Notfall die Zähne zusammenbeißen (Raabe's *Hungerpastor*, chap. i). (6) Only the names of nationalities and a few famous families are inflected weak; see 76. I. 3 (toward end). Raabe in his *Eulenspiegel*, chap. ix, has formed the plural of the family name Nebelung weak, perhaps facetiously after the analogy of the mythical dynasty die Nibelungen (see 76. I. 3, toward end). Fontane in his *Vor dem Sturm* forms the plural of the family name Wigwitz according to the 2nd cl. str., but in one place (I. 1) we find a weak plural where it is represented as a part of an inscription upon a house of the year 1634: Das ist der Wigewigen Haus. Some N.G. authors employ the weak plural quite commonly: Leontie des Beaur! Wie klingt dir das von einer Schneidertochter hier im Lande der Fritzen und Karlinen? (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 71). Das war die Spießchaft der Uhlen (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. i, and often elsewhere). Die Urseelen der alten Zeit waren vielleicht religiöse Schwärmer (R. Huch's *Ludolf Urslen*, chap. ii).

c. The names of countries and places usually form their plural with s or remain uninflected. The plural of die Schweiz, however, occurs with the ending of the 2nd cl. str.: Die Schweiz werden immer kleiner (Fontane's *Wanderungen*, vol. I, chap. *Die Ruppiner Schweiz*).

2. Some make a shade of difference in meaning between the uninflected plural form and the plural in s. In the sense of *men like*, all proper names remain uninflected in the plural, while they end in s to designate all or several members of a family: die Scherer, die Grimm *men like* Scherer, Grimm, but Brauns sind nicht reich. The Browns (a definite family) are not rich. Here again we find a difference of usage. Sometimes we find in the former meaning also plurals in e and s: die Salzmannen *men like* Salzmann, die Humboldts *men like* Humboldt, kleine Lindaus und Blumenthals (A. Bartels) little Lindaus and Blumenthals.

Some add s to indicate different members of the same family and inflect the name according to the regular declensions, to distinguish different families of the same name: die Schmidts the different members of a definite family by the name of Schmidt. Es gibt viele Schmidte (or Schmitt) There are many families of the name of Schmidt.

3. Several names are often found in the singular after one plural article, which indicates the case of each of the proper names and by its plural form shows that all are included in the statement: Eichhorn war aus der Zeit der Befreiungskriege her bekannt als ein Freund der Arndt, Schleiermacher, Berthes, Reimer. Die Lindau und Genossen Lindau and his literary following; die Schmidt, Vater und Sohn; die beiden Stechlin, Vater und Sohn (Fontane's *Stechlin*, chap. ii); and also without the article: Stradnitz Vater und Sohn (Marriot's *Seine Gottheit*, chap. vii), von Arnstein Söhnen, Wien (H. von Hofmannsthal's *Der Abenteurer*, p. 161).

Sometimes we find not only a plural article but also a plural adjective, both of which show by their plural form that they apply to all the proper names: Bei Steinau zwang er die völlig überraschten

Thurn und Bubna zu schimpflicher Kapitulation. The article in each of the above cases has collective force, and hence when the names are to be taken separately the article must be dropped: Nachkommen von Geschlechtern, deren Namen mit den Tagen Karl Augusts, Amalias, Goethes für immer verknüpft sind, wollten die neuerfrischte Goethearbeit fördern.

Instead of the definite article before a number of names we often find the indefinite with the force of *such men (women) as*: Zu den Dorfgeschichtenerzählern stellen wir schließlich auch noch einen Dichter, der mit seinen Natur- und Landschaftsbildungen einen gewissen Gegensatz zu den Kultur- und Sittengemälden eines Auerbach, Rant und Rossegger bildet, Abalbert Stifter (L. Salomon). Auf der anderen Seite wollen wir aber auch nicht vergessen, daß in dem Land eines Albert Bigius, eines Gottfried Keller und eines Conrad Ferdinand Meyer der deutsche Geist mit seine herrlichsten Blüten getrieben hat (*Hamb. Correspondent*, July 5, 1902).

4. If a title stands before the name, the plural form depends upon the relation of the title to the name. If title and name are usually found together and are thus felt as *one* name, the combination is accordingly treated as a single name, and hence *s* is added to the last word of the combination: die Fräulein Schmidts *the Miss Schmidts*. Usage here, however, fluctuates as in 203. I. 1. a and also in English, and hence we also find die Fräulein Schmidt *the Misses Schmidt*, especially where no ambiguity can arise, as in case of a modifying word or a plural verb: die beiden Fräulein Schmidt. Die Fräulein Schmidt sind krank. But even where there is no ambiguity we also find the pl. in *s*: die beiden Fräulein Selgentreus (Fontane's *Frau J. T.*, iv). In die Frau Mutter the second word usually takes the pl. form: von den Frau Müttern (Raabe's *Deutscher Adel*, chap. iii). In case of Herr, however, both words are inflected: meine lieben, verehrten Herrn Leutnants (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, 2. 3). Also in case of Frau: mit den Frauen Müttern (Raabe's *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. iv).

If the title or other appositive does not necessarily form a part of the name, but is felt as containing a definite important modification of it, it is inflected, while the name itself remains uninflected: die Forschungen der beiden Vettern Sarasin. Die Gebrüder Grimm. Both words are often inflected: Meine Vettern Ramberg's (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, 3. 5). Grafen Bassebom's habe es im Lande gegeben, so lange Menschen zurückdenken könnten (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 209).

PECULIARITIES IN THE INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

94. 1. Many nouns, especially those that have no article or other modifying word before them, remain uninflected in certain relations, described briefly as follows:

a. Unmodified nouns connected by *und*: die Grenze zwischen Affe und Mensch, das Verhältnis von Herr und Sklave, ein Mann von Herz und Mut. Nun setze dich dahin zwischen Herr und Frau Dörr (Fontane), but in this combination also with inflection: Dort verabschiedete er sich sofort von Herrn und Frau Lehmann (Hirschfeld's *Das grüne Band*, viii).

b. In a list of unmodified words: die Stufen von Lehrling, Gesell und

Meister the different stages of apprentice, journeyman, and master. Adjective-substantives, however, must always be inflected, even in such lists: die Errettung von Schiff, Mannschaft und Reisenden.

c. As an unmodified objective predicate (262. III. 2. A): Der Wirt nannte mich Graf und dann Erzelenz (Immermann). Sometimes inflection occurs here: Es war ungefähr so, wie wenn Sie auf der Durchreise nach einem andern Stern wären oder von einem andern kämen. Kurz was man so Idealisten nennt (Wilbrandt's *Franz*, III).

d. As an unmodified appositive: das Gebell des knurrischen Hofhunds Gewissen (Goethe's *Götz*, 2, 1). Dem Ausgestoß'nen seine Tochter geben, | heißt selbst sich um den Namen Jude bringen (Gutzkow's *Uriel Acosta*, 3, 4). The noun which the appositive explains may in German be suppressed: Was verstehen Sie unter Engel? Aber kommen Sie mir nicht mit [dem Wort] Flügel (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. ix).

e. Modified or unmodified nouns that have become so closely associated with a verb as to form one idea with it, especially in the predicate relation: Wir sind nicht mehr Herr über das, was entsprungen ist, aber wir sind Herr, es unschädlich zu machen (Goethe's *Wahlverw.* 2, 12). Unter Umständen können wir alle Modell sein (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act 2, p. 58). Nach einigen Wochen schon waren sie gut Freund mit mir (Marriot's *Seine Gottheit*, chap. ii).

f. In case of an unmodified noun that stands before a preposition and is repeated again after it: Sie ruhten Herz an Herz.

g. Neut. and masc. nouns used in a collective sense after expressions of weight, measure, extent, or quantity; see 96. 4. (1).

2. An unmodified noun in the singular following von in a phrase which stands as an appositive to a preceding noun agrees with this preceding noun in case: ein armer Teufel von Philologe (Schücking), ein Juwel von Herzenmenschen (F. Lienhard). Er schalt „den Rummel von Tugen," der von „Tuten und Blasen nichts wußte" (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. xviii). In the plural the dative form is required: Und meine Hunde von Reitern! (Goethe's *Götz*, 3, 13); wir beiden dummen Tugen von Mediziniern (Hartleben's *Das Kalbscôtelette*). If an article or adjective precedes, the dative is also required in the sing.: ein Schurke von einem Soldaten (Lessing's *Minna*, 3. 11).

3. A. When a noun modifies a noun or pronoun denoting weight, measure, extent, quantity, or kind, and forms together with it the idea of one complete whole, it stands in the gen. only in a rather choice, literary style, while in the ordinary language of every day it more commonly stands in apposition with the preceding noun of weight, measure, extent, or quantity, except when that preceding noun is in the gen. sing., in which case it more commonly takes the form of the nominative: ein Pfund Fleisch (instead of *Fleisches*), ein Glas guter Wein, der Preis des Pfundes Fleisch (instead of *Fleisches*), der Preis einer Wagenladung schlesische Kohle, samt einem Fuder österreichischem Wein, mit einem Duzend guten Äpfeln (or often guter Äpfel, as the gen. is better preserved when it stands in the pl. and is modified), Wasen aus (made out of) einer Art schönem Marmor, ein Stab von 40 Centimeter Länge, vielen Tausend Deutschen bekannt, nach einer Stunde Raft, nach vier Jahren Frist after a period of

four years, 6 Tage bis 1 (read einen) Monat Gefängnis from six days to one month's imprisonment, seit Milliarden Jahren. Er kauft ein Duzend gute Stahlsebern. Kartal ist eine Stunde Eisenbahn von Konstantinopel entfernt Cartal is an hour's ride by rail from Constantinople. Er bat um eine Minute gnädiges Gehör He begged for a moment's kind hearing.

The gen. ending *s* of the noun denoting the weight or measure is often suppressed, while the dependent word has the regular gen. form: zum Ankauf eines Stück Viehs (Raabe's *Die Innerste*, chap. i). The gen. ending *s* of the noun denoting the weight or measure is sometimes suppressed, while the following noun is without inflection: die Hälfte des halben Schoppen Apfelwein (Raabe's *Eulenpfingsten*, chap. x).

It must be noticed that in case of a pl. noun of weight, measure, or quantity, the following noun in apposition can sometimes alone show the case, as the noun denoting weight, &c. has the same form for sing. and pl. and cannot distinguish case relations in the pl.: mit zwei Duzend Äpfeln, mit drei Schock Eiern.

The noun or pronoun denoting the weight, measure, &c. sometimes follows the dependent noun and may even be separated from it by one or more words, in which case words modified by a pronominal adjective (see B) can also take the appositional construction: Harmonisches Getön war wenig dabei (Raabe's *Horn von Wanza*, chap. xvi). Sonst bot es (i. e. das Gedicht) angreifbare Punkte die Menge (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, I. chap. xvii). Einfache Zahladverbia gibt es nur wenige (Braune's *Althochdeutsche Grammatik*, p. 202). Solche Fehler können die Menge im Plinius sein.

a. Instead of the appositional construction the dependent noun often prefers the nom. form of each number throughout that number, except in the masc. acc. sing. and the dat. pl., where the appositional construction is the rule: der Preis eines Fuders österreichischer Wein the price of a fuder (a measure) of Austrian wine, samt einem Fuder österreichischer Wein, ein Fuder (acc.) österreichischen Wein, der Preis eines Paares wollene Strümpfe, mit einem Paar wollenen Strümpfen.

b. With names of streets, months, and seasons the article often drops out and the gen. then gives way to the appositional construction, or more commonly retains the nom. form throughout: Ecke Hoher Steinweg on the corner of the High Causeway, mit dem Anfang Juli with the beginning of July, Ende Dezember, Ausgangs Sommer, and always so in naming the day of the month: der erste [Tag understood] Mai the first of May. In a more careful style also inflection: an der Ecke der Buchowerstraße und des Luisenufers, am Ende des Dezember.

c. The gen. also gives way to the appositional construction in certain cases of proper nouns where possession is not to be emphasized, but where it is desired to show that the proper name is closely identified with the thing expressed by the preceding noun: das Porträt W. Zimmermann the portrait of (i. e. representing) W. Zimmermann, der Antrag Rümelin the motion made by Rümelin, im Verlage der bekannten Kunstanstalt Rudolf Schuster, Berlin published in the well-known art institution conducted by Rudolph Schuster, Berlin, der Prozeß Reinsdorff the law suit carried on by or against Reinsdorff, das vor einigen Tagen vorgenommene Duell Koke-Schrader the duel which took place a few days ago between Messrs. Kotze and Schrader, Ferdinand Schmidt Nachfolger (on a sign) Ferdinand Schmidt, now followed by a successor, der gräfliche

Zweig Eysen (G. Ompteda) the branch of the Eysens that has the rank of counts, die Arche Noah Noah's ark, die Villa Schirmacher the villa of Mr. S.. Sie fuhren in den Bahnhof Cassel (into the railroad station at Cassel) ein und, ebenfalls glücklicherweise, bald weiter (Raabe's *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. iv). Methode Schliemann zur Erlernung der englischen Sprache Schliemann's method of learning English, das Ministerium Windischgrätz the ministry formed by prime minister Windischgrätz. And often by Luther where we would expect a gen.: die Tochter Pharaos, die Cedern Libanon. This idiom is also very common with geographical names after the word Linie: Das Elsassische erstreckt sich von einer Linie Zabern, Weissenburg, Seltz südwärts bis zur Reichsgrenze The Alsatian dialect extends from a line passing through Zabern, Weissenburg, Seltz, southward to the boundary of the Empire.

B. The gen. alone can be used in all the above cases if the dependent noun is modified by an article or a pronominal adjective: ein Pfund guter Tee or besserer Tee, but des besten Tees, ein Pfund unseres Tees, &c. The dat. after von here often takes the place of the gen.: einer von diesen Männern. For an important exception to the general rule see last part of A.

a. The gen. is also still used in case of infinitive-substantives and certain set expressions: kaum eine halbe Stunde Gehens scarcely a half hour's walk distant, ein Stündchen Weges a short hour's walk, &c.

4. Titles of books, &c. are inflected, or more commonly uninflected: in Hauptmanns "Einsamen Menschen," in "Der Fleck auf der Ehre." See also 255. III. 1. A. g.

5. The inflectional ending is sometimes affixed only to the second of two nouns connected by und, to emphasize their oneness of meaning (see 249. II. 2. F. a): der Besitz eigenen Grund und Bodens; von Gott und Rechts wegen by rights; trotz Sturm und Regens; aus der Mitte seines energischen Tun und Treibens (Raabe's *P.M.*, xviii); Verlust ihres Hab und Gutes. The inflection of the second of a pair of words connected by und was employed freely in early N.H.G.: umh Korn und Mosts willen (Luther), mit geschenck vnnnd gabenn (id.), or also with inflection on the first word, mit gesetzen oder werck (id.). This usage is still not infrequent in the classical period: mit mancherlei Mangel und Gebrechen (Goethe); an Tier und Vögeln fehlt es nicht (id., *Faust*, I. 238). Von Sonn und Welten weiß ich nichts zu sagen (ib., I. 279). With the exception of a few set expressions, as those given above, it is now rare: Dann hört man sie auf Trepp und Gängen stöhnen (Storm's *Im Nachbarhause links*).

6. When compound nouns have been formed by writing as one word a noun and a preceding modifying adjective which enters the compound with its inflected form, the adjective is declined throughout as if it stood apart from the noun: der Hohepriester the high priest, des Hohenpriesters, ein Hoherpriester. If such a compound enter again into a new compound of which it is itself the first component element and another noun the second, the inflected adjective of the first component element usually agrees illogically with the second component element: der arme Sünder the condemned criminal, but ein bleiches Armesündergesicht a pale face of a condemned criminal, das bleiche Armesündergesicht, zu den Armesünderfrühstücken; Tausend und eine

Nacht *The Arabian Nights*, but wie ein Abend aus dem Tausendundeinein-nachtbuch (Raabe's *Zum Wilden Mann*, chap. vii). Such compounds are mere syntactical fragments struggling toward the estate of a true compound. The adjective is inflected, since it is customary for adjectives to be inflected, and usage here as elsewhere requires inflectional forms to follow the last component. A more logical system of inner inflection is to construe as often as possible the first noun of the compound as plural and allow the adjective of the compound to agree with it: ein Armesündergesicht a face such as poor condemned criminals have. Von Armeleutemalerei als kunsthistorischem Begriffe ist in einem eben erschienenen Hefte die Rede. A still more logical way of declining such compounds, bound to triumph though in many cases not as yet so common as the above, is to form them into genuine compounds and dispense with the inflection of the adjective of the first element: das bleiche Armsündergesicht.

In many cases such compounds are not written together as forming one word, although they are entitled to such recognition as well as the preceding: der silberne Kreuzbund Society of the Silver Cross, &c. A number of similar formations, as ein geräucherter Fischhändler, reitende Artilleriekaserne (inscription formerly upon the barracks near the 'Oranienburger Tor' in Berlin), ein ausgestopfter Tierhändler, ein wohlriechender Wasserfabrikant, &c., are capable of a comical construction, a *smoked fishdealer*, instead of a *smoked-fish dealer*, &c. The comical feature of this clumsy construction has helped to bring it into disrepute and facilitate the movement toward the form of a genuine compound, mentioned above.

7. In a few loose compounds (249. II. 2), which in reality are each only a fragment of a sentence written together as one word, that element of the compound may be inflected which in the syntactical structure of the sentence would be inflected, or the compounds may remain wholly uninflected: die Handvoll handful, pl. zwei Hände voll or Handvoll. Some of these compounds are now felt more or less as true compounds and hence are treated as such, the final element alone being inflected: der Springinsfeld romp, des Springinsfeld(es), pl. Springinsfelde. See 80. 2.

8. A fossil noun in an oblique case may not be felt as such and hence construed as a simple stem: M.H.G. ze den wihen nahten (dat. pl.) *on the holy nights*, now Weihnachten construed as a fem., neut., or masc. sing.; see 96. 1. Compare 88.

9. Feminine nouns are not now in general inflected in the sing., but the following exceptions occur:

1. The following groups of feminines take an *s* in the gen. sing. after the manner of strong masculines and neuters:

a. Feminine names; see 86. 1 and 2. b.

b. Names of relationships and feminine titles when used as names; see 90.

c. Some articleless feminines depending upon a preposition, prep. phrase, or an adjective which governs the genitive: an Zahlungs Statt *instead of payment*, after the model of an Kindes Statt; von Obrigkeit wegen *by order of the authorities*, after the model of von Amts wegen *officially*; frankheitshalber after the model of Feiertags halber. Antworts (now Antwort) genug (Lessing)

after the analogy of *Brot* genug (Luther). The *ß* of *Antwort* may also be explained according to 102. *c*.

2. Feminines show weak inflection in the singular only rarely in simple forms, but quite frequently in compounds; see 76. II. 1 and 249. II. 1. B. *a*.

DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVE-SUBSTANTIVE.

95. Nouns made from adjectives are only rarely declined according to any of the regular declensions for nouns; see 111. 10. A few substantives made from adjectives have no inflection; see 111. 7. *h*. They are usually inflected just as the adjective would be in the same position, but like nouns are written with a capital letter: *der Alte* the old man; *die Alte* the old woman; *das Schöne* the beautiful. For declension in full see 109.

PECULIARITIES OF NUMBER IN NOUNS.

96. 1. While in general the sing. denotes one and the pl. more than one, in certain cases the opposite, namely, that one denotes many and many one, may be true. A number of objects may be divided into groups, each one of which may be looked at as a unit, a whole: *ein Tausend Cigarren* a thousand cigars; *ein Duzend* a dozen; *ein Schoß* a numerical whole consisting of 60 units; *eine Mandel* a numerical whole consisting of 15 units. Thus also collective nouns, as *die Herde* herd, *die Armee* army, &c., are nouns in the sing. denoting many. These words can usually form a plural as naturally as any common noun, but some, as *das Vieh* cattle, *das Gefinde* servants taken collectively, cannot form a pl., since they are conceived of in a general way and not as divisible into distinct groups. Thus as the mind can conceive of individual units as a whole and give expression to this conception in language, the form of the word does not always distinguish between sing. and pl., and colloquially and in popular language we can even find pl. words with a sing. article: *ein zehn Mark* the sum of ten marks, *ein* (also *eine*) 8 Tage a period of a week, *am Ende der zweiten acht Tage* (Wildenbruch) at the end of the second week. Thus also *Ostern* Easter, *Pfingsten* Pentecost, *Weihnachten* Christmas, though they were placed in the pl. on account of these festivals each lasting several days, may also be regarded as a fem. (under the influence of the pl. *die*), masc. (under the influence of *der Tag*), or perhaps more commonly a neut. (under the influence of *das Fest*): *So waren wieder Pfingsten gekommen, aber wie waren es diesmal andere Pfingsten!* (Stifter's *Stud.*, I. 154). *Die ewigen Ostern des Herzens* (Keller's *Seldwyla*), *vorige Weihnachten* (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. xi); *jede Weihnachten* (Lewald). *Gedenkst du noch an einen Weihnachten?* (Storm's *Unter dem Tannenbaum*, vol. I, p. 180). *Auf ein frohes Weihnachten* (Fontane's *Unwiederbringlich*, chap. vii). *Ostern fällt* (or *die Ostern fallen*) *dieses Jahr spät*.

Thus also *Buch* book, literally *letters*, now always sing. for one object, was in Gothic and O.H.G. in the pl. to designate one book.

On the other hand, the pl. is so associated with the original sing.

form *Geschwister* (in Lessing's *Nathan*, 1, 2, still used in sing.), a collective noun meaning *brothers and sisters*, that the pl. article is now used (*die Geschwister*), while we in other cases use the sing. article before collective nouns of the same form: *das Gebränge* throng, *das Gebirge* mountain-system, &c.

2. Names of materials do not from their very nature admit of a plural in the usual sense, but may take a plural to designate different species, varieties, or grades of the same thing: *der Wein* wine, pl. *Weine* different kinds of wine, *Rheinweine* Rhine wines, *Rotweine*; *das Holz* wood, pl. *Hölzer* different kinds of wood; *die Baumwolle* cotton, pl. *die amerikanischen Baumwollen* American varieties of cotton; *feine Bleie* fine grades of lead (for pencils, &c.).

a. This simple pl. is often replaced by compound plurals, formed by adding to the name of the material the substantive *Art* for the species of life or growth, or kinds of manufactured articles, and *Sorte* for different varieties of the same species of life or growth, or for different brands or sorts of manufactured articles, or by adding *Stoffe* (or *Zeuge* or *Gewebe*) to the name of textile goods: *Getreidearten* different kinds of grain, *Holzarten* different kinds of wood, *Stahlartern* different kinds of steel; *Kaffeesorten* different sorts of coffee, *Branntweinsorten* different sorts of brandy; *Seidenstoffe* or *Seidenzeuge* silks, *Atlasgewebe* satin fabrics.

b. Of course when the names of materials denote a definite portion of the material a plural can be formed, which in a number of cases (see 83) has developed a different pl. from the form indicating different kinds of the material: *das Brot* bread, loaf, pl. *die Brote* loaves; *das Horn* horn, pl. *Hörner* pieces of horn, horns (of an animal), pl. *Hörner* kinds of horn; *das Tuch* cloth, pl. *Tücher* pieces of cloth, shawls, pl. *Tüche* kinds of cloth.

3. Names of persons do not take a pl. except when they indicate that a number of persons enjoy a common name, or when they assume the force of common nouns: *Goethes* the Goethes (family), *die Goethe* great poets like Goethe.

4. (1). An important group of words have an uninflected pl., in form exactly like the nom. sing., when they are used in a collective sense to express weight, measure, extent, and quantity—namely, all neut. and masc. nouns, and the feminines *Faust* or *Hand* hand, *Handvoll* handful, *Mandel* (pl. also *Mandeln*) a numerical whole consisting of 15 units, *Mark* mark (coin): *zwei Fässer* two separate casks, but *zwei Faß Wein* two casks (as a measure) of wine; *zwei Biere* two kinds of beer, but *zwei Bier* two glasses of beer; *zwei Säcke* two (empty) sacks, but *zwei Sack Mehl* two sacks of flour; *ein Gewicht von 140 Kilogramm* (or *Kilo*) a weight of 140 kilograms; *400 Mann Infanterie* 400 men of infantry (who move as one man under the command of one man), but *4 Männer* four men (taken individually); *zehn Pfennig* ten pfennigs in one piece, but *zehn Pfennige* ten one-pfennig pieces; *einige Duzend Kadetten* several dozen cadets in one group, but *Duzende solcher Fälle* dozens of such cases; *zwei Mark*, *ein Pferd* 15 *Faust hoch*, *die drei Handvoll Erde*. *Vier Mandel* geben ein *Schock*.

In case of other feminines be sure to place the noun in the pl.: *zwei Flaschen Wein*, *zwei Tassen Kaffee*.

If it is not a question of weight or measurement, but of a mode of

weighing or measuring, the regular pl. form is used: Ein Kilo hat zwei Pfund und das Pfund 500 Gramm *A kilogram contains two pounds and a pound 500 grams*, but Bei uns wiegt man nach Pfunden *In our country we weigh by pounds*.

a. This usage of leaving nouns in the sing. form in the pl. when used collectively started with the neuters, which in an earlier period had their regular pl. like the sing., as in English *one sheep, two sheep*. Later this plural, which in form was like the sing., did not seem to suffice, and hence alongside of the old form a new plural was formed in one of two ways, either by adding *er*, which still later changed to the present form *er*, or the word took on the common masc. pl. ending *e*, and thus for each word there arose two pl. forms, as Glas and Gläser glasses; Pfund and Pfunde pounds. Later both of these forms were put to a good use in that a different shade of meaning was given to each. The form in *er* or *e* was applied to objects taken separately, the one that took no pl. ending, in accordance with its apparently sing. form, was invested with collective force to express weight, measure, extent. This usage was found so convenient that it spread to masculines and to the few feminines above mentioned.

(2) There are a few exceptions to the rule stated above:

a. Foreign nouns and native masc. take sometimes their regular pl. ending to express weight, measure, and extent, or may remain uninflected, apparently without any difference in meaning between the different forms: zehn Talente 10 talents, eine Summe von 30 Taler or Talern, 10 Pfennige or Pfennig, zehn Schritte or Schritt. The plural form is used especially to give individualizing force and thus often to add emphasis, even in case of native words of all genders: ganze Händevoll entire handfuls. Er hatte mehr als einmal viele Laufende Beitrag gezahlt, wenn es galt, das Fortbestehen irgend einer Wohltätigkeitseinrichtung zu sichern (G. Ompteda's *Eysen*, chap. ix).

b. Nouns expressing measure of *time* may be inflected, or remain undeclined after numerals except in the gen. and dat. pl., where they are always inflected: zwei Monat or Monate *two months*, but in zwei Monaten in two months.

c. Originally all these neuters were without pl. case endings only in the nom. and acc., in the gen. and dat. taking a regular case ending, and even to-day a gen. and dat. ending can occasionally be found: wegen zweier Pfunde Salz, mit zwei Pfunden Salz.

5. A. Abstract nouns, especially neut. adjective-substantives and neut. infinitive-substantives, do not admit of a plural as a rule: das Schöne that which is beautiful, das Stehen standing, die Weisheit wisdom, die Schönheit beauty, die Freiheit freedom, die Größe greatness, &c.

a. Abstract nouns, however, take a plural when they take on concrete meaning, also to express a number of kinds and distinct actions: das Schreiben *writing*, in the abstract, without a pl., but das Schreiben letter, pl. die Schreiben; das Andenken *memory*, without a pl., but das Andenken present, a token of remembrance, pl. die Andenken; thus also Schönheiten beauties, Freiheiten liberties, Größen sizes; to express kinds: die Krankheit sickness, pl. die Krankheiten different kinds of sickness; to express different acts: der Sprung jump, pl. die Sprünge jumps, &c.

Note. Fossilized remnants point to a more liberal use of the pl. here in an earlier period to give emphasis to the meaning of the abstract idea or to show that the idea continued in force, or was repeatedly expressed: in Gnaben bei jemand stehen to be in favor with some one, to be recipients of repeated favors, zu Ihren Diensten at your service, Offizier in preussischen Diensten an officer in Prussian service. In some such expressions the pl. force can scarcely be felt, and is in fact a fossil: mit Ehren with honor, zu Gunsten in favor of, zu meinen Ungunsten oder Gunsten, zu Schanden machen to destroy, zu Schulden kommen lassen to make oneself guilty of, &c. Sometimes this emphatic pl. is retained in English where the sing. is found in German: Man hegt Hoffnung, Verdacht Hopes, suspicions, are entertained.

b. The plural of abstract nouns sometimes expresses a part of a whole, hence with less extensive meaning than the sing.: Der Fürst verlieh dem Volke statt des Rechts Rechte The prince gave the people instead of justice certain rights. Thus also die Wahrheit *truth* is broader in meaning than the pl. Wahrheiten *truths*. In similar contrasts even concrete nouns take on real abstract sense in the sing. with broad generalizing force, while the pl. is more concrete and of narrower application: Wüstlinge rühmen sich stolz und mit Recht, sie kannten die Weiber, zarte Gemüther allein kennen und ehren das Weib.

B. A few abstract and collective nouns can form no pl. in the usual way, but borrow a form from some kindred derivative, or enter into a compound to form a pl., which of course in the case of abstract nouns must have a more distinctly concrete meaning than the sing., as no strictly abstract noun admits of a pl., or in case of collective nouns must have individualizing force:

Singular.

der Beruf calling, profession,
das Bestreben effort,
der Betrug deceit, fraud,
der Bund league,
der Dank thanks, gratitude;
vielen Dank! many thanks!
das Erbe inheritance,
das Feuer fire, conflagration,
der Friede peace,

die Furcht fear,
die Gewalt force, violence,
das Glück luck, fortune,
die Gunst favor,
der Kummer sorrow,
das Leben life,
das Leid grief,
die Liebe love,
das Lob praise,
der Lohn reward,
der Mord (see 69. 1. b) murder,
die Not necessity, distress,

der Rat advice,

Plural.

Berufsarten.
Bestrebungen.
Betrügereien.
Bündnisse.
Danksagungen, expressions of gratitude.
Erbschaften.
Feuersbrünste.
Friedensschlüsse, Friedensverträge treaties of peace.
Befürchtungen.
Gewalttätigkeiten.
Glücksfälle pieces of good fortune.
Gunstbezeugungen.
Kümmernisse.
Menschenleben lives.
Leiden (pl. of das Leiden).
Liebschaften amours.
Lobeserhebungen, Lobsprüche.
Belohnungen.
Mordtaten.
Notwendigkeiten necessities, necessary things, Nöte distress.
Ratschläge counsels.

der Raub robbery,
 der Schmuck ornament,
 der Schnee snow,
 der Segen blessing,
 der Streit dispute,
 der Tod death,
 der Trost consolation,
 die (sometimes der, daß) Unbill, less
 commonly die (daß) Unbill, die
 Unbillde wrong, injury, inclem-
 ency,

daß Unglück misfortune,
 der Verdruss vexation,
 der Verrat treason,
 die Verteidigung defence,
 der Verzug delay,
 die Vorsicht caution,

der Wahn illusion,
 der Zank quarrel,
 daß (der, die) Zubehör, or less com-
 monly die Zubehörde all that
 belongs to a thing,

Räubereien.
 Schmucksachen.
 Schneemassen heaps of snow.
 Segnungen.
 Streitigkeiten.
 Todesfälle cases of death.
 Tröstungen.
 Unbilden.

Unglücksfälle unhappy accidents.
 Verdrüsslichkeiten.
 Verrätereien treacherous acts.
 Verteidigungswerke fortifications.
 Verzögerungen.
 Vorsichtsmaßregeln precautionary
 measures.

Wahnvorstellungen.
 Zänkereien.
 Zubehörde, Zubehören, Zubehörden, Zu-
 behörungen all the various things
 which belong to a thing.

Note. Der Bau building, though not an abstract noun, forms also its plural with a borrowed form, die Bauten; see also 69. 1. b.

6. A few nouns have no plurals at all: die Asche ashes, der Bodensatz sediment, dregs, der Hafer oats, der Hopfen hops, der Inhalt contents, daß Unkraut (sometimes also in pl. Unkräuter) weeds; and the names of sciences ending in *is*: die Mathematik mathematics, die Metaphysik metaphysics, die Politik politics, &c.

7. Some nouns are only used in the plural:

a. Certain words which were originally conceived of as plural: Ferien vacation, holidays, Fasten lent; sometimes Östern, Pfingsten, Weihnachten, for which see 1 of this article. Also a number of Roman festivals usually occur in the pl.: die Bacchanalien bacchanalia, Floralien festival of Flora, Saturnalien festival of Saturn, &c.

b. A number of words which contain the idea of a group of distinctly different but related individuals or of connected parts have usually only the pl. form, though occasionally a sing. occurs: Annalen annals, Beinkleider or Hosen, or sing. das Beinkleid or die Hose trousers, Briefschaften letters, papers, Einkünfte income, Eltern, Großeltern parents, grand-parents, Requien obsequies, Fortschritte progress, Gebrüder brothers (as partners in some business), Gefälle duties, revenue, income, Gerätschaften implements, tools, Geschwister brother and sister, or the children of a family, Gliedmaßen (replaced in the sing. by das Glied, or the name of the particular limb) limbs, Haue (see also *Note 2*, below) flogging, lit. blows, Kalbaunen tripe, Kollektaneen collectanea, Kosten costs, expenses, Kriegsläufe warlike times, Zeitläufte times (hard, good, &c.), Laren lares, Leute (see 9,

below) people, *Manen* manes, *Masern* measles, *Molken* whey, *Naturalien* productions of nature, *Personalien* short description of a person, *Penaten* penates, *Pocken* or *Blattern* small-pox, *Präliminarien* preliminaries, *Preiosen* valuable articles, such as precious stones, jewelry, *Ränke* intrigues, *Rötelu* German measles, *Schlacken* dross, *Spejen* or *Unkosten* transportation charges and all expenses connected with a shipment of goods, *Sporteln* fees, perquisites, *Treber* (sometimes *Trebern*) or *Trester* (sometimes *Tresteru*) druff, *Trümmer* (see this word, 74. 1) ruins, *Umtriebe* machinations, *Utenfilien* utensils; also geographical names just as in English: *die Alpen* the Alps, *die Cykladen* the Cyclades, *die Darbanellen* the Dardanelles, *die Hebriden* the Hebrides, *die Niederlande* the Netherlands, *die Pyrenäen* the Pyrenees, *die Vogesen* the Vosges, &c., but these plurals do not correspond in every case in the two languages, as *das Felsengebirge* the Rockies, &c.

Note 1. Besides the more common words in the above list, there are many others, especially those scientific terms which designate classes of animal or plant life: *die Herbivoren* herbivorous animals, *Orchideen* orchids, &c.

Note 2. The sing. is often used, in order to indicate an individual of a class or group, or a fragment or portion of a whole, or to express a collective idea: *die Alpe* a single range of the Alps. *Diese Haut* (pl. used as a sing. in a collective sense) erfolgte (*Langenscheidt* Berl. 55). *Unter diesen Worten waren sie bis in den Garten gekommen, an eine Stelle, wo viel Buchsbaum* (sing. used in a collective sense) stand (*Fontane's Stechlin*, chap. vi). „Wenn also das Schiff — apropos, was kann es geladen haben?“ „Jedenfalls Hering, Herr Doktor, salzen und frischen“ (*Spielhagen's Faustulus*, p. 60).

8. Several very common words are sing. in German (and hence also capable of a pl.) which are only pl. in English: *das Almosen* alms, pl. *die Almosen* different items of alms, *die Brille* spectacles, pl. *die Brillen* the pairs of spectacles, *die Kneipzange* nippers, *die Lichtpuge* snuffers, *die Meerenge* straits (of the sea), *das einzige Mittel* the only means, remedy, *vielerlei Mittel* many different kinds of means, remedies, *die Nachricht* (piece of) news, *die neuesten Nachrichten* the latest items of news, *die Schere* scissors, *die Zange* the tongs, pl. *die Zangen* the pairs of tongs, *der Zirkel* pair of compasses.

9. The pl. of *=mann* in compounds is usually *=leute*, which, however, does not mark sex as *=mann* does in the sing., but may include both sexes, and thus represent people not as individuals, but as belonging to a distinct class, or profession, or trade: *der Edelmann* nobleman, pl. *Edelleute* people of noble birth; *der Hauptmann* captain, pl. *Hauptleute*; *der Kaufmann* merchant, pl. *Kaufleute*. Thus many such plurals: *Bergleute* miners, *Fuhrleute* drivers, &c. The regular pl. is, however, used when the sex becomes prominent: *der Chemann* married man, pl. *die Chemänner* married men, but *Chleute* married people. Thus also when the persons designated are not so much thought of as belonging to a class, but rather are conceived of as individuals who embody the idea of inner, personal, manly worth: *der Ehrenmann* man of honor, pl. *die Ehrenmänner*; *der Kraftmann* man of power, genius, pl. *Kraftmänner*. Thus also *Biedermänner* honest men, *Staatsmänner* statesmen, *Hauptmänner* leading men, but *Hauptleute* captains. Thus sometimes, as in the last example, the same

word forms a plural either in *«männer»* or *«leute»*, according to the meaning. The plural in *«männer»* is also used with reference to the exterior form of men, as in *«Hampelmänner jumping-jacks, Schneemänner snow-men, &c.»*

Note. Synonymous with *Leute* is the collective noun *das Volk people* and *die Menschen people*. *Volk*, as its use in the sing. would indicate, expresses strongly the collective idea with many shades, as *das deutsche Volk* the German people, *das literarische Volk* literary people, *verliebtes Volk* people in love, *das gemeine Volk* the common people, *das Landvolk* the rural population. *Es ist schlechtes Volk* They are a bad set, &c. *Leute* may also refer to a crowd or class of people, but rather as individuals, and thus the collective idea in it is much weaker than in *Volk*: *die Leute in diesem Hause* the people in this house, *arme, reiche, alte Leute* poor, rich, old people, *fremde Leute* strangers, *meine Leute* my servants, factory men. *Es waren nur zwei Leute im Zimmer, als ich kam.* *Die Leute sagen's* People say so. *Kleider machen Leute* Clothes make the man. *Unsere Väter waren Leute!* (Goethe's *Egmont*, 2) Our fathers were men of sterling qualities. As can be seen in the last example under *Volk* and the last two under *Leute*, the former often expresses contempt and the latter honor and importance. *Menschen* differs from *Leute* in that it lacks entirely collective force and thus refers to individuals only: *Alle Menschen* (every individual) *müssen sterben*, but *Alle Leute* (as a class) *müssen sterben*, *junge Leute können sterben*. *Menschen* differs from *Männer* only in that it includes males and females, while *Männer* refers only to the former.

Note that *Volk* in the sense of *nation* has a pl. *Wölfer*.

10. If a noun is modified by two numeral adjectives, the first indeclinable with pl. force, the second declinable with sing. force, added to the first to complete and make more exact the statement, the noun may be either sing. or pl. If the sing. form of the noun be chosen, then the second adjective must agree with it, but if the pl. form be preferred, which is more common, then the second adjective like the first remains uninflected: *Tausend und eine Nacht* The Thousand and One Nights ('The Arabian Nights'), *hundert und ein Kamel* one hundred and one camels, *in zwei und einem halben Jahr* in two and a half years, *drei und eine achtel Meile* three and one-eighth miles, or more commonly (except in the first example in this one meaning) in *zweiundeinhalb Jahren, dreiundeinachtel Meilen*. For a case where the noun must be in the pl., see 121. 2. *d. Note.*

11. In German the sing. is used where in English the pl. is employed, in that case where a pl. noun refers to as many different things as it has modifying adjectives, as *die englische und die deutsche Sprache* the English and German languages, *der erste und zweite Vers* the first and second verses.

12. The Germans often use the sing. in a distributive sense (where we use the pl.) when the reference is to a *single* thing or respect which applies alike to a number of persons: *Viele haben das Leben verloren* Many lost their lives. *Alle hoben die rechte Hand auf* All raised their right hands. *Der Senker hieb den Verurtheilten den Kopf ab.* *Ihr müßt den Kopf gerade halten.*

13. The sing. is much used with generalizing force both in German and English, but in the former to a greater extent than in the latter: *Der Mensch wird zum Unglück geboren* Man is born unto trouble. Often this generalizing sing. takes on real abstract force, as is described in 5. A. *b.* above.

14. For the words which have different plurals with differentiated meanings, see 83.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

97. Gender in German is not, as in English, determined by sex or non-sex, but is either natural or grammatical.

The gender of nouns is natural when it is based upon sex. Natural gender is confined to names of animate beings. Such nouns are masculine if they denote males, and are feminine if they denote females.

Grammatical gender is determined, not by sex, but by the meaning and form of the word. It is of three kinds—masculine, feminine, neuter. By grammatical gender even nouns denoting things and abstract ideas are often masculine or feminine by virtue of their meaning or form: *der Herbst* autumn, *der Fluß* river, *die Fahrt* drive, *die Reife* ripeness. The origin of grammatical gender and its original relation to natural gender is not clearly understood. Some think that the basis of all gender is the natural sex of man and beast, which originally in the lively play of the imagination was also ascribed to lifeless objects. Others with greater probability think the question more a matter of form. The idea of masculine or feminine sex could attach itself to certain suffixes which occurred in certain words denoting males or females; or these suffixes might coincide in form with the endings of certain pronouns which referred to males or females, and thus give rise to the idea of sex. Many nouns which denoted lifeless objects or abstract ideas had the same form as these nouns denoting animate beings, and thus became intimately associated with them and were treated *grammatically* in exactly the same way, their modifiers being required to assume a masc. or a fem. form. Also words which had a *meaning* similar to these latter nouns were similarly treated, their modifiers being required to assume a masc. or a fem. form. Thus there arose quite a large number of words which were masc. or fem., although they did not represent males or females. In the present period of the language, and probably also in earlier periods, no idea of sex was associated with these words in ordinary language. In a limited number of words, however, masc. and fem. forms have led to the idea of sex. Thus popular fancy pictured to itself the moon as a shepherd among his sheep (stars), starting from the grammatical gender of (*der*) *Mond*. The imagination may also in a limited number of words have directly personified things, assigning gender to them on the basis of some fanciful resemblance to animate beings.

The neuter (i. e. neither) gender denoted originally, as its name signifies, absence of gender, and has arisen to the dignity of a third gender only by its difference in grammatical form from that of the other two genders. It is now only possible by the aid of philology to determine the different forces at work in gender, and that only imperfectly. The following detailed treatment is intended only as a practical guide to the use of gender as it is to-day.

GENDER ACCORDING TO MEANING.

98. 1. The gender of nouns indicating animate beings is, as in English, masc. or fem. according to sex : der Vater father, die Mutter mother ; der Mann man, die Frau woman ; der Bruder brother, die Schwester sister ; der Knecht servant, die Magd maid-servant ; der Bock male goat, die Ziege female goat ; der Ochs ox, die Kuh cow.

There are a few exceptions :

a. A few isolated words : das Weib and Frauenzimmer woman, das Mensch wench, in the language of the common people das Mannsen man, das Weibsen woman.

b. Nouns representing not an individual but a species or class are not of uniform gender, some being masc., some fem., some neuter : der Mensch man, der Adler eagle, die Person person, die Waise orphan, die Schwalbe swallow, das Pferd horse, &c.

c. In nouns denoting the young of animals and also of human offspring the idea of sex is not prominent, and hence the gender is usually neuter : das Kalb calf, das Füllen colt, das Junge eines Schafes, ein ganz Kleines baby, &c.

d. All nouns representing living beings become neut. when they take a neut. suffix : Fräulein Miss, young lady, liebes süßes Tantchen dear good Auntie.

2. The gender of nouns indicating lifeless objects is difficult for the foreigner to detect, but may be learned in part by the following rules :

A. Masculines are :

The names of the days of the week, months, seasons, winds, points of the compass, mountains, stones, and foreign rivers (see B. a) : der Montag Monday, der Januar January, der Winter winter, der Passat the 'trade-wind,' der Norden the north, der Brocken the Brocken, der Diamant diamond, der Don the Don (river). Of course if such names are compounds they are not necessarily masc., but are governed by their last component : das Frühjahr Spring, das Matterhorn (peak of the Alps), &c.

B. Feminines are :

(1) The names of most German rivers, most trees, plants, flowers, fruits (except der Apfel and der Pfirsich, the latter of which also has a fem. form, die Pfirsiche), cigars (see b, below), postage stamps (see b, below), and cardinal numerals used as substantives : die Weser the Weser river, die Elbe the Elbe river, die Eiche oak, die Rose rose, die Kartoffel potato, die Traube grape, die Henry Clay (name of a cigar), die Portoriko the Porto Rico postage stamp, die Eins the figure 1. For more concerning the gender of numerals see 121.

3. Note.

a. The prevailing gender for German rivers is fem., as a number were originally compounded with a fem. suffix -aha related to the Latin aqua *water* : Werra from Werraha. A few German rivers, as der Bober, Eisack, Elbing, Inn, Kocher, Lech, Main, Neckar, Regal, Regen, and Rhein, are masc., as are also American rivers and foreign streams in general excepting those ending in a fem. suffix, as e, a, and often these are masc. : der Mississippi, Don, Columbia,

&c., but die Themse Thames, Wolga, &c. Some foreign rivers have double gender, sometimes according to the languages from which they were taken, as der Rhone, der Liber, sometimes fem. after German fashion, as die Rhene, die Liber.

b. The names of cigars and postage stamps are fem., as the mind supplies the words Zigarre, Marke. In the same manner other words may take the gender of some word supplied by the mind: ein (neut.) Stahl, for Stahlpulver; feiner Korn (with the gender of Brantwein) Dutch gin; beim Blindenfuss (with the gender of Spiel) (Fontane's *L'Adultera*, chap. viii) in the play of blindman's-buff; die Blickensderfer (name of eine Schreibmaschine).

(2) The gender of the names of ships is usually that of the original word, but there is a tendency to employ the feminine gender: der Kaiser Wilhelm, die Luise, die Möwe, but die Deutschland, die Celtic, an Bord der „Moltke“ (*Hamburgischer Correspondent*, 24. Juni 1903), auf der „Hohenzollern“ (ib.), die Osborne (ib.), die Hamburg (ib., 29. Juni 1903), die Navahoe (ib.). Instead of the feminine we sometimes find the masculine gender: an dem Untergang des „Maine“ (*Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, 23. März 1898), der Caracas (*Hamburgischer Correspondent*, 24. Dez. 1902).

C. Neuters are:

a. The names of minerals except: der Stahl steel, der Tombak (sometimes neut.) tombac, der Kobalt (sometimes neut.) cobalt; and Nickel (masc. in the meaning Zehnpfennigstück) nickel, Wismut bismuth, Zink zinc, which are either neut. or masc., but perhaps more commonly the former.

b. The names of countries, islands, provinces, and places except those that always take the article (59. II. F. 2. a and b).

Note. In poetic style cities are often personified and treated as fem.: Es thront am Elbestrande | die stolze Magdeburg (Arndt). Die rege Zürich waffnet ihre Zünfte (Schiller).

c. Certain abstract nouns, especially abstract adjective-substantives, as das Schöne the beautiful, and infinitive-substantives, as das Singen singing.

d. The letters of the alphabet, as das A the a, das Abc the A-B-C.

e. Loose compounds and nouns formed from other parts of speech (see 80.2), except those that denote persons, which also sometimes take the neut. but usually the natural gender: ein Vergissmännchen forget-me-not, ein Mehr a majority, ein Fluss that which is above and beyond, ein unbekanntes Etwas an unknown something, das bessere Ich in uns (Goethe's *Wilhelm Meisters Lehrjahre*, II. chap. xi). Du heiraten? Wen?—Eben dieses Wen wollte ich dir unterbreiten You marry? Whom?—It is just this question of the whom that I was about to lay before you. Ich haße dieses pedantische allerdevoteste deutsche Sie (Wilbrandt's *Franz*, III). Bei Tische hatte ich ein reizendes Gegenüber At the table a charming young lady sat opposite me. Wenn sie mich wollte—Sie! Welche Sie? (Wilbrandt's *Maler*, 3, 4) If she would have me—She! What She? Es ist kein Er; es ist eine Sie (Raabe's *Frau Salome*, chap. xi) It (here the thief) is no male person; it is a girl. Ein (masc.) Springinsfeld romping boy or girl, ein (masc.) Saufaß toper, &c. Luginsland watch-tower is masc. after the analogy of Turm.

The gender of loose compounds is sometimes regulated by the first word : see 102. *h* (toward end).

GENDER ACCORDING TO FORM.

99. To some of the rules of formal gender there are many exceptions. In the following articles only the general outline of present usage can be given :

1. Masculines are :

a. Most monosyllabics by gradation (197. A. *a*), showing in many cases the same vowel as the past tense of the strong verbs from which they are derived : *der Band volume*, from *binden to bind* ; *der Biß bite*, from *beißen to bite* ; *der Sproß sprout*, from *sprossen to sprout* ; *der Schluß close*, from *schließen to close*. A few monosyllabics show another vowel than that of the past : *der Tritt step*, from *treten to step* ; *der Befehl order*, from *befehlen to order*, &c. A few are neuter : *das* (sometimes *der*) *Floß raft*, *das Schloß lock*, castle. A few are feminine ; see 2. *a*, below.

Examples of this class of words with the peculiarities of their formation are mentioned in articles 198–205 under each class of strong verbs, where they should be studied carefully.

b. Most monosyllabics formed from the stem of *wk.* verbs or the stem of the present tense of strong verbs : *der Tanz dance*, from *tanzen to dance* ; *der Fall*, from *fallen to fall*, &c.

c. Nouns having the following suffixes : *=er*, *=ler*, *=ner*, denoting agents, as *der Schreiber clerk*, *der Künstler artist*, *der Pförtner door-keeper*, *der Wecker alarm clock*, literally *awakener* ; those in *=el* denoting an instrument, as *der Hebel crow-bar* ; those in *=em*, *=ich*, *=ig*, *=ing*, *=ling*, *=rich*, as *der Atem breath*, *der Fittich wing*, *der König king*, *der Hering herring*, *der Frühling Spring*, *der Gänserich gander*, &c.

2. Feminines are :

a. Disyllabics by gradation ending in *e*, showing in many cases the same vowel as the past tense of the strong verbs from which they are derived : *die Sprache language*, from *sprechen to speak*, &c. ; (with another vowel than that of the past tense) *die Fliege fly*, from *fliegen to fly*, &c.

Most monosyllabics by gradation are masculine, but a few are feminine : *Schur shearing*, *Buhr* (usually in compounds, as *Ausfuhr exportation*). See close of 1. *a*.

b. Nouns having the following suffixes : *=e* (in abstract nouns and names of lifeless objects) ; many in *=t* ; all in *=ei* (accented), *=in*, *=ung*, *=heit*, *=keit*, *=schaft* ; a few in *=ut* and *=at* ; a number in *=nis* and *=sal* : *die Größe greatness*, size, *die Stube room*, *die Macht might*, *die Meckerei teasing*, *die Gräfin countess*, *die Heizung heating*, *die Vermeessenheit audacity*, *die Frömmigkeit piety*, *die Landschaft landscape*, *die Armut poverty*, *die Heimat native place*, *die Betrübniß sadness*, *die Wirrniß chaotic condition*, *die Bangniß state of fear*, *die Wildniß wilderness*, *die Trübsal* (see 3. *c*, below).

3. Neuters are :

a. Nouns having diminutive suffixes (see 245. I. 8. 1. *f*), and

those in *=icht* denoting a collective idea: *das Kindechen* little child, *Didicht* thicket, but *der* or *das* *Rechricht* sweepings.

b. All in *=tum* (except *der Reichtum* wealth, and *der Irrtum* error) and those in *=tel* (from *Teil* part): *das Fürstentum* principality, *das Viertel* fourth.

c. The majority of those in *=nis*, *=sal*, *=fel*: *das Gefängnis* prison, *das Schicksal* fate, *das Rätsel* riddle, &c. A goodly number in *=nis* are fem. A few fluctuate between fem. and neut.: *die (das) Ersparnis* economy, saving, *Erkenntnis* (see 83), *die (das) Säumnis* delay, *die (das) Verderbnis* corruption, &c. Four in *=sal* are usually fem., sometimes neut.: *Drangsal* distress, *Mühsal* drudgery, *Saumsal* slothfulness, *Trübsal* affliction. A few in *=sal* are generally neut., sometimes, especially earlier in the period, masc.: *Rinnsal* channel, &c.

d. All of the form *Ge* — *e*, or *Ge* = (without *e*), except the strong masculines *Gebrauch* use, *Gedanke* thought, *Gedeih* (now obsolete) prosperity, *Gefalle(n)* favor, *Gehalt* (see 83), *Gehorsam* obedience, *Genuß* enjoyment, *Geruch* odor, *Gesang* song, *Geschmack* taste, *Gestank* stench, *Gewährsam* (earlier in the period fem., sometimes neut.) custody, *Gewinn* or *Gewinnst* gain; the masculines *Gesell(e)* companion and all other masculines of this form (*Ge* — *e* or *Ge* =) which represent persons; the feminines *Gebärde* gesture, *Gebühr* due, fee, *Geburt* birth, *Geduld* patience, *Gefahr* danger, *Gefährde* fraud, danger, *Gemeinde* community, *Genüge* satisfaction, *Gerechtfame* privilege, *Geschichte* history, *Geschwulst* swelling, *Gestalt* form, *Gewähr* guarantee, *Gewalt* power.

FLUCTUATION IN GENDER.

100. 1. The following substantives have double gender with a preference, perhaps, for the first mentioned form: *der* and *das* *Altar* altar, *die* and *der* (in early N.H.G. and classical period) *Angel* fishing-hook, *der* and *das* *Arsenif* arsenic, *das* and *der* *Bauer* bird-cage, *der* and *das* *Bereich* reach, domain, *das* and *der* *Bruch* swampy land, *das* and *der* *Bündel* bundle, *das* and *der* (rare) *Datum* date, *die* and *das* *Drangsal* trouble, perplexity, *das* and *der* *Elßaß* Alsace (name of a German province), *das* and *der* *Euter* udder, *das* and *der* *Floß* raft, *das* (with Goethe and Schiller also masc. and still occasionally so, especially in a figurative sense; in early N.H.G. fem.) *Gift* poison, *der* and *das* *Grat* ridge, *der* and *die* *Hässel* reel, *das* and *der* *Hehl* secrecy, *die* and *der* *Hirse* millet, *das* and *der* *Juwel* jewel, *der* and *das* *Kamin* fire-place, *der* and *das* *Kathedr* chair (in a college), *der* and *das* *Knäuel* ball (of yarn, &c.), *der* and *das* *Kompromiß* compromise, *das* and *der* (rare) *Lexikon* lexicon, *das* and *der* *Lob* praise, *das* and *der* *Meter* metre, *das* and *der* (after the analogy of *der Dom*) *Münster* cathedral, *das* and *der* *Pult* desk, *das* and *die* *Reunauge* lamprey, *die* and *der* *Pacht* lease, *das* and *der* *Pendel* pendulum, *das* and *der* *Perpenbifel* plumb-line, pendulum, *das* or *der* *Rückgrat* backbone, *das* and *der* *Scepter* or *Zepter* sceptre, *das* and *der* (rare) *Semester* semester, *der* and *das* *Ungeßüm* vehemence, *das* and *der* *Versteck* hiding-place, *der* and *die* *Zierrat* ornament, and a number of others.

a. In dialect many deviations from the literary language occur in the gender of words: *die* (for *der*) *Wach*, *der* (for *die*) *Wutter*, *das* (for *der*) *Monat*, &c.

2. The following have not only double gender, but also double forms, with perhaps a preference for the first mentioned at least in ordinary language, and in some cases a leaning to the second in elevated diction: *die Wack* and *der* (as a rule earlier in the period) *Wacken* cheek, *der Rarren* and (especially in

N.G.) die Karre cart, der Nerv and die Nerve nerve, der Pfirsich and die Pfirsiche peach, der Posten and die Posten post, der Psriem or Psriemen and die Psrieme awl, die Quaste and der Quast tassel, die Quelle and der Quell spring (of water), die Rige and der Rig chink, die Schläfe and der Schlaf temple (on the forehead), die Scherbe and der (S.G.) Scherben shard, der Sparren and die Sparre rafter, die (and das) Werst and die Werste dock-yard, die Zehe and der Zeh toe, and others. The different dialects and sections often diverge here widely.

3. For nouns which have different genders and forms with differentiation of meaning, see 83.

GENDER OF FOREIGN NOUNS.

101. Foreign nouns retain the gender which they had in the language from which they were borrowed: der Kerker from the Latin *carcer*, m.; das Kloster from the Latin *claustrum*, n.

a. A number of foreign words, however, have changed their gender in accordance with the rules for German words, influenced in some cases by their meaning and in other cases by their ending: das Karzer *school prison* (L. *carcer*, m.) on account of das Gefängnis *prison*; der Marmor *marble* (L. *marmor*, n.) on account of der Stein *stone*; das Banner and Panier *banner, standard* (from the French *bannière*, f.) under the influence of das Feldzeichen *banner*; names of foreign countries usually neuter after the analogy of German geographical names, as das alte Europa (in Latin fem.) *old Europe*; der Keller *cellar* (L. *cellarium*, n.) after the analogy of German words in *-et*; die Etage (masc. in French) *story* (of a house) after the analogy of German words in *-e*; die Kanzel and die Bibel, as they are in fact plurals (the Latin pl. *cancelli altaris* the *railing of the altar* and the Greek and Latin pl. *biblia*), which here, as often elsewhere, are used as feminine singulars. Words from the English, which no longer has grammatical gender, take their gender from some resemblance in meaning or form to German words: das Beefsteak after the analogy of das Rindfleisch, der Streif or Strife after the analogy of der Streich. As the French has no neut., names of things which in it are masc. often become neut. in German: das Porträt from *le portrait*, das Resultat from *le résultat*, the former following the analogy of das Bildnis, the latter the analogy of other words in *-at*. On the other hand, words which originally in the Latin are neut. have become masc. influenced by the French, which has converted the neut. into the masc.: der Palast from Latin *palatium*, n. through French *palais*, m.

b. In quoting from a foreign language, if it is not possible to avoid placing an article before a foreign word or the first word of a quoted phrase, the gender is commonly conformed to the gender of the corresponding word in German: Sweet in seiner History (die Geschichte) of English Sounds.

GENDER OF COMPOUND NOUNS.

102. Compound nouns have the gender of the last component: die Haustür door of the house, der Haußtur entrance-hall of a house, das Haustier domestic animal.

The exceptions are:

a. A number of words having for their final component Mut, namely, Demut, Langmut, Sanftmut, Unmut, Großmut (sometimes masc.), Schwermut, Wehmut, are fem., while others, as Freimut, Gleichmut, Hochmut, Jagdmüt, Kleinmut (sometimes fem.), Mißmut, Uebermut, Unmut, &c., are masc. Here the fem. words have a different origin from the masc. words, being originally abstract nouns derived from adjectives formerly in use and having in M.H.G. the fem. ending *e*, while

the masculines are compounded with the masc. substantive *Mut* and are according to rule masc. At length the final *t* of the fem. nouns entirely disappeared, and they became identical in form with the masculines, but retained their fem. article. However, the meaning of the word has also exercised some influence over the gender of these words, for, after the masc. and fem. forms had become identical, some masc. became fem., and some fem. became masc., and of words of modern coinage some took on the masc., some the fem. article. At present the feminines, as can be seen from the above complete list, express the milder virtues and qualities, while the masculines denote the more vigorous or violent traits or feelings, or their opposites.

b. *Abſcheu* disgust, *Vogelſcheu* (Goethe's *Egmont*, act 4, Strasse; now *die Vogelſcheuche*) scarecrow, are masc., but other compounds of *Scheu* are fem., as *die Waſſerſcheu*, &c.

c. *Die Antwort* answer, but *Wort* and its compounds are neut. *Antwort* is in fact not a compound of *Wort*, but a derivative from it, and had in M.H.G. a different form: *antwûrte* (later changed to *Antwort*, as its form was influenced by that of *Wort*), neut. or fem. In early N.H.G. *Antwort* is still neut., and a few survivals of this usage still occur in the classical period: *ein richtiges antwort* (Prov. xxiv. 26). *Ich glaubte, daß ſei Antwort genug* (Lessing's *Emilia*, 4, 3). The *ß* of *Antwort* may in the sentence from Lessing be also explained according to

94. 9. c.

d. *Teil* is now usually masc., but it is still neut. in accordance with older usage in certain set expressions: *der letzte Teil des Buches*, *der vierte Teil des Landes* (but in early N.H.G. *das zehende teil der Stad* ſiel—Rev. xi. 13). It is still neut. in the meanings *allotted portion*, *portion* (in certain set expressions), and sometimes *a good deal*: *Sie haben ihr Teil dahin* They have their portion (i. e. reward). *Du haſt das beſſere Teil erwählt* (Schiller's *Maria*, 5, 6; compare Luke x. 42). *Ein gut Teil Reichthum*, um ein gut Teil reicher *a good deal richer*. Also its compounds are usually masc., except: the contracted and uncontracted form in fractions, as *das Drittel* or *Dritteil* third, &c.; *das Gegentheil* opposite, *Hinterteil* (perhaps more commonly masc.) *back part*, *Vorderteil* (perhaps more commonly masc.) *forepart*, *Pflichtteil* (more commonly masc.) *that which necessarily falls to a legal heir, whether the testator will or no*, *Erbteil inheritance*, *Mutterteil inheritance from the mother*, *Vaterteil patrimony*. *Urteil* (n.) is not a compound of *Teil*, but is derived from the corresponding verb *erteilen* (ur= reduced to *er=* by reason of loss of accent), which formerly also had the meaning to *pass sentence* or *judgment* besides its present significations. This old meaning is now expressed by *urteilen*, which is a derivative of *Urteil*.

e. *Mittwoch* *Wednesday* is masc. after the analogy of the other days of the week.

f. *Heirat* marriage is fem. although *Rat* is masc., since the origin of the word was forgotten and the force of *Rat* was no longer felt. The abstract nature of the present meaning led to its use as a fem.

g. Compounds which are the names of places are neut. even though the last component is of some other gender, since they follow the general rule for the gender of places: *das ſchöne Hamburg* beautiful *Hamburg*, but *die Wartburg* (a single castle).

h. A number of compounds, which are in fact each a syntactical fragment of a sentence or a whole sentence written as one word, are neut., or if they represent persons have natural gender without reference to the gender of the last component: *das Vergißmeinnicht* forget-me-not, *der Springſtiefel* romping boy, *der Taugenichts* a good-for-nothing fellow, &c.; see 98. 2. C. e.

In other cases where the natural gender is not pronounced, the gender of such a syntactical fragment is sometimes regulated by that of the first word: *die Handvoll* handful, *der Löffelvoll* spoonful, *der Fuß breit* the width of a foot.

INFLECTION OF THE ADJECTIVES.

103. Adjectives may be divided into two general classes—*qualifying* (or *descriptive*) and *limiting* (see 118) adjectives.

QUALIFYING ADJECTIVES.

104. 1. A qualifying or descriptive adjective is one that expresses some quality or attribute of the object designated by the noun. Contrary to English usage these adjectives are, except in the predicate, inflected, forming two distinct declensions—the *strong* and the *weak*. The leading points as to the inflection of the adjective are as follows:—

A. The *strong* declension, which has by far the fuller inflection (see 106), is employed when the adjective is not preceded by a modifying word, or when there stands before the adjective a limiting word which has no ending to show gender and case: N. guter Wein; mein kleiner Bruder. Hence the strong adjective not only limits the meaning of its noun, but it also marks its case and gender in the absence of the article or some other limiting word that has full endings to show case and gender.

B. The *weak* declension, which has only two endings, *e* for the nom. sing. of all genders and for the acc. sing. of the fem. and neut., and *en* for all other cases of the different genders, sing. and pl., is employed when there stands before the adjective some limiting word such as the def. article or a pronominal adjective with strong inflection which can show the case and gender: N. der gute Knabe, G. des guten Knaben.

a. Sometimes the limiting word is understood, having already been previously used in the same sentence, in which case the adjective is weak: der Erbfeind unseres Reiches und heiligen Glaubens.

Sometimes in colloquial language the article is omitted even where there has been no previous use of one: Lotte: Ich denk' mir das gar nicht so schön, aus dem großen Leben wieder zurück in die Einsamkeit. Döring: Im Gegenteil! Einzig Richtige (Halbe's *Die Heimatlosen*, p. 37).

b. Earlier in the period the strong forms are often found after str. limiting words in accordance with an older usage: unsre eigne Weiber (Lessing), diese einzelne Stücke (id.).

C. If the qualifying adjective is preceded by two pronominal adjectives with different inflection, its declension is controlled by that of the second pronominal: Dieser mein guter Freund.

D. Two or more qualifying adjectives which limit the same noun take the same inflection: guter, alter Wein; ein guter, alter Mann; dieser gute, alte Mann.

2. The qualifying adjective or participle is not declined in the following cases:

A. In the *predicate* in the positive and comparative, but it is inflected here in the superlative (see 112. 1). In the predicate relation the adjective or participle is used:

a. As the *predicate complement* of intransitives of incomplete predication (as *sein* to be, *bleiben* to remain, *scheinen* to seem, *werden*

to become) or of passive verbs: *Er ist alt. Das Wetter scheint besser. Er ist der älteste. Er wird glücklich genannt.* Here also belongs the past participle in the compound tenses of such intrans. verbs as are conjugated with *sein*: *Er ist gekommen.*

b. As *predicate appositive* (see *Note* below): *Sie kamen glücklich an. Sie saß weinend am Bette ihrer Mutter.*

Note. The adjective which is used as an appositive stands after intransitives of complete predication, and must not be confounded with adverbs which describe the manner of the action, for this predicate appositive, like the predicate complement, qualifies the subject and not the action of the verb: *Er liegt krank* (pred. appos.) *He lies sick*, but *Er liegt gerade* (adverb) *He is lying straight.*

c. As *objective predicate*, i. e. when the adj. predicates a quality or state of the object. This predication is not represented as absolute, but as limited and modified by the idea contained in the verb: *Er glaubt sich krank* (= *Er ist, nach seiner Meinung, krank*). *Sie weinte sich krank* (= *Sie wurde durch Weinen krank*). *Wir fanden ihn sehr leidend* (= *Er litt sehr, gemäß unsrer Wahrnehmung*). *Ich betrachte dies als überflüssig* (= *Meiner Meinung nach ist dies überflüssig*). *Ich halte die Sache für abgemacht. Ich sehe dich gegürtet und gerüstet* (= *Du bist, wie ich sehe, gegürtet und gerüstet*). But in the superlative: *Man preist diesen Mann den glücklichsten. Ich fühle mich heute am schwächsten.*

Here also belongs the past participle in the compound tenses of transitive verbs: *Er hat den Brief geschrieben.*

Note. The objective predicate often indicates the result of the action of the verb upon its object, and hence is in this use by some called the *factive predicate*: *Er schlug ihn tot.*

B. After the noun which it limits, but only in the positive and comparative, never in the superlative:

a. Instead of standing attributively before a noun, an adjective or participle often follows it in the relation of an appositive. A single adjective or participle rarely stands after the noun, as *Röslein rot*, except in poetry, but it usually takes this position when it is itself modified by an elliptical clause or by a phrase which is limited by a clause, also sometimes if it is merely modified by another word or words, or if there are several adjectives or participles separated from each other by commas or by *und*: *eine Rose rot wie Blut [ist], ein Mann älter als ich [bin]. Ein panischer Schreck, vermehrt durch das falsche Gerücht, daß vor den Toren sich Cäsars Reiter gezeigt hätten, kam über die vornehme Welt. Und küßte sie an (now usually auf) den Mund so bleich (Uhlund). Eine Stange drei Meter hoch. Endlich erscheint ein weibliches Ding, flüchtig, unbeachtlich, wild, reizig bis zur Unverschämtheit, lustig bis zum Tollen. Der Himmel nah und fern, er ist so klar und feierlich. Ein Edelknecht sanft und fest.*

But in the superlative: *Dieser Mann, der älteste unter allen.*

The adjectives in 111. 7. c can only in this position be used attributively.

Note 1. With the exception of the two cases mentioned above which require the adjective or participle to stand after the noun, this position of an adjective and participle is peculiarly adapted to poetic style, and in prose is often replaced by the usual attributive position before the noun, an arrangement of words which often is markedly different from the English, as is nicely illustrated by the following sentence:

[In her reverie which carried her back to her youthful days] Sie sah sich heranwachsen im Hause ihres Vaters, des alten, reichen Kaufherrn, ein von Luxus umgebenes, durch Schmeicheleien verwöhntes und doch inmitten alles Reichthums ein armes, weil von seiner Mutter behütetes Mädchen (Helene Stöckl's *Am heiligen Abend*).

Note 2. The non-inflection of these adjective or participial appositives is readily explained by the fact that they are not real attributive adjectives, but stand in elliptical clauses of which they are felt as predicate: Sie hat einen Nacken [, der] weißer [ist,] als Schnee.

Note 3. For exceptions to the rule that the adjective is here uninflected, see 111. 9.

Note 4. If the adjective or participial appositive have an article, which is especially the case in poetic style, where for emphasis an epithet instead of preceding follows the noun, it is always inflected: Auf dem Teich, dem regungslosen, weilt des Mondes holder Glanz. Also in prose in case of titles: Friedrich der Große, Karl der Fünfte.

Note 5. In M.H.G. the postpositive adjective could be inflected, and this older usage survives in rare instances in poetry: Ich habe einen solchen Baum jüngst gesehen, gebogen über eines Waches Saum und schwanfenden in Frühlingslüfte Wehen (Rückert). A little more common is the inflection here of *selig deceased*: Mein Mann seliger war bei Jahren und nicht leicht zu rühren (Goethe). The nom. masc. form *seliger* has become a mere fossil, as it is also used in the oblique cases: Ich habe die Sache von meinem Vater seliger ererbt (Immermann). Non-inflection here, however, is the rule: mein Vater selig (or still more commonly *mein seliger Vater*).

b. In case of those nouns (see 96. 4. (1)) which remain uninflected when used in a collective sense to express weight, measure, extent, the modifying qualifying adjective follows the noun, and hence is not inflected: fünf Pfund slämisck, zehn Fuß rheinisch.

C. Uninflected adjectives or participles often stand in the relation of an appositive to a following or preceding noun or pronoun, when the adjective or participle represents a subordinate adverbial clause of which it would be the predicate complement or verbal predicate: [weil sie] froh [war], ganz allein und jeder lästigen Beobachtung entrückt zu sein, hatte sie sich in die Ecke zurückgelehnt und die Augen geschlossen. Dies hörend (= als er dies hörte), brach er in Tränen aus. Er grüßte, sich tief verbeugend (= indem er sich tief verbeugte). Allzustraff gespannt (= wenn er allzustraff gespannt wird), zerspringt der Bogen.

Note. The participle usually refers to the subject of the sentence, as in the above examples, but, as it is also used as objective predicate and in this capacity must refer to the object, ambiguity may arise: Ich verließ ihn, sein Unglück beklagend. Here *beklagend* may refer to *ich* or *ihn*. The participial construction should be avoided here, but of course is unobjectionable where no ambiguity is liable to arise: Ich fand ihn, seine Bücher ordnend.

D. In the absolute construction, where the participle or adjective is not in apposition with any word in the main clause, non-inflection is the uniform rule. This absolute construction is treated at length in 265. B.

E. Sometimes non-inflection of adjectives and participles occurs in the attributive relation, in poetry, dialect, familiar language, and in many set expressions that have come down to us from an earlier period when non-inflection here was more common. In all of these cases, however, non-inflection is now usually limited to the nom. and acc. neut. sing. in the strong declension: Ein unnütz Leben ist ein früher Tod (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, l. 115). Kein größer Glück als ein vertrauend Herz (Dahn's *Jugendgedichte*, 190). Lieb Weib, lieb Kind, auf gut Glück at random, auf baldig Wiedersehen I hope to see you again

soon. Especially frequent in old maxims: *Bar Geld kauft wohlfeil*. The uninflected attributive form occurs only rarely elsewhere: *Das Alter ist ein höflich Mann* (Goethe). *Lieb Knabe* (Schiller's *Tell*, I, 1), *der gleißend Wolf* (Uhland). *Sinnend sprach zu ihm jung Werner* (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Sechstes Stück). *Lieder jung Werners* (ib., p. 212). *Und ich weiß ein ander Lied von | einem jung jung Zimmergesellen* (ib., Zweites Stück).

a. Luther was much freer in the use of uninflected forms than even elevated discourse allows to-day. He often dropped the strong masc. nom. sing. ending and also final *e* both in the strong and weak declensions in any gender, case, or number: *manch from* (= *frommer*) *priester*, *ein zornig man*, *weltlich gewalt*, *die weltlich gewalt*, *etlich götlich und Christlich artidel*. This older usage survives in compounds: *Gedemann*, *Großstadt*, &c.

A historical view of the case is at this point helpful. The so-called uninflected form is here in a number of cases the natural historic form. The adjective followed in earlier periods the inflection of nouns, as can also be seen in Latin. In course of time the endings of the nouns became much weather-beaten, so that they seem to-day endingless in the nom. and acc. sing. of masculines and neuters, and in case of neuters (see 69. 5. *H. N.*) also in the plural: *der, den Tag*, *das Wort*, *zehn Pfund*. The adjective should here also be endingless, and the uninflected forms we find in Luther's writings are in part the correct historic forms. Even in the earliest historic period the Germanic adjective had borrowed endings from the pronouns to mark gender and case more clearly, and these new endings and those borrowed still later have in large measure displaced the correct historic endingless forms. On the other hand the old endingless form has supplanted the inflected forms in the predicate relation in the positive and comparative. In certain pronominal adjectives we still find both old and new forms, but with differentiated function: *mein Buch*, but *das Buch ist meines*.

105. General Rules. The fem. and neut. have each their respective acc. sing. like the nom., the nom. and acc. of all genders are alike in the pl., also the gen. and dat. sing. of the fem. are always identical.

106. Strong declension of *gut good*.

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Common form for all genders.
N.	<i>guter</i>	<i>gute</i>	<i>gutes</i>	<i>gute</i>
G.	<i>guten (es)</i> ¹	<i>guter</i>	<i>guten(es)</i> ¹	<i>guter</i>
D.	<i>gutem</i>	<i>guter</i>	<i>gutem</i>	<i>guten</i>
A.	<i>guten</i>	<i>gute</i>	<i>gutes</i>	<i>gute</i>

Note 1. The strong qualifying adjective is now really weak in the gen. of the masc. and neut. sing., as the old strong form *es* is usually replaced here by the weak *en* except in a few set expressions, as *reines Herzens* of a pure heart, &c., which have come down to us from earlier periods unchanged. J. Grimm and other grammarians have sought to bring the strong gen. into favor again, and a few recent authors as von Sybel have followed their example, but in general the weak form is very firm in present usage. Grammarians usually state that the gen. of the adjective is strong when it

¹ For full explanation of this form, see *Note 1.*

limits a weak noun: großes Fürsten, &c. This case, however, is extremely rare, as weak nouns by virtue of their meaning are usually accompanied by an article. *Limiting* adjectives (the numeral *ein*, the articles, and pronominal adjectives), however, still retain as a rule strong inflection in the gen.: dieses Buches, welches Buches. But the new weak gen. is now also often found in pronominal adjectives, especially in adverbial expressions: *allenfalls* and *jedenfalls* in any event, keinesfalls or *keinenfalls*, &c. Also occasionally elsewhere: Wimmelte es doch . . . von Kindern . . . jeden Alters! (Spielhagen's *Was will das werden*, I. chap. iv).

Note 2. In early N.H.G. the strong ending *es* (masc. and neut. gen., and neut. nom. and acc.) was often in both qualifying and limiting adjectives contracted to *ß*: Und er thet Abram guts umb jren willen (Gen. xii. 16). This contraction is still found in Goethe's time, and even up to the present day in poetry and dialect: Um Guts zu tun, brauchst's keiner Überlegung (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, I. 1989). Hast du kein freundliches Wort, du Gute (Grillparzer's *Die Argonauten*, Act 2). Schöns Schätzle, vergiß du nit mein (Auerbach). In general this contraction is now rare in qualifying adjectives except in a few set expressions, such as was Rechts (also *Rechtes*) something fine, und so was Guts (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act 1) and such good things. However, in the neut. nom. and acc. sing. substantive forms *etwas* (see 121. i. D) and *feins* (as in *feins von beiden neither one*) this contraction is still quite common even in literary German. In colloquial language it is also common in the neut. nom. and acc. sing. substantive possessive forms *meins*, *deins*, &c., and also in the substantive demonstrative *jens*: Ein fremdes Kind ist sehr nett so von weitem, aber wenn man es als feins betrachten soll . . . (Ompeda's *Cécilie von Sarryn*, chap. xx). Man lernt ja von manchem so das und jen's (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act 1).

Note 3. The strong ending *em*, masc. and neut. dat. sing., is in different periods sometimes replaced in careless language by the more convenient *en*, which gives the word the appearance of a weak form. Weinhold, in his *Mittelhochdeutsche Grammatik*, p. 560, gives examples for M.H.G. In early N.H.G. this seemingly weak form is quite frequent: von den Römischen reuber (Luther), von einem Bischoff (Luther), vor anbrechenden Morgen (*Faustbuch des Christlich-Meynenden*, 1725). It occurs occasionally in the classical period and still later: von weiten (Lessing), daß ich mich kaum vor jemanden sehen lassen konnte (Lessing), welche Sprache niemanden von der Familie fremd war (Goethe). Sie traueten niemanden mehr, nicht dem Nachbar, nicht dem Verwandten, ja kaum noch dem Herrgott (Raabe's *Else von der Tanne*). It now rarely occurs in the literary language, but is quite common in popular speech: Sie elenber, undankbarer Mensch, ist das der Lohn, daß wir Ihnen in unsern Haus ein Jahr und sechs Monat' Geld hab'n verdienen lassen (Anzengruber's *Das vierte Gebot*, I, 8).

107. Weak declension of gut:

Singular.

Plural for all genders.

Masc.	Fem.	Neut.		
N. der gute	die gute	das gute	die	} guten
G. des guten	der guten	des guten	der	
D. dem guten	der guten	dem guten	den	
A. den guten	die gute	das gute	die	

Note. In early N.H.G. the acc. fem. sing. sometimes ended in *en* instead of *e*, thus occasionally preserving here the M.H.G. form: vber die gangen (instead of *gange*) Erde (Gen. i. 26).

108. Mixed Declension. It must be especially noted that after *ein* and the words inflected like it, i. e. *fein* and the possessive pronominals (see 58. A and B), the adjective is strong in the nom. of the masc. and the nom. and acc. of the neut., because these words are here deficient in endings to show gender and case. The plural is of course weak.

mein guter Freund,
my good friend

meine gute Schwester,
my good sister

mein gutes Buch,
my good book

Singular.

N. mein guter Freund

meine gute Schwester

mein gutes Buch

G. meines guten Freundes

meiner guten Schwester

meines guten Buch(es)

D. meinem guten Freund(e)

meiner guten Schwester

meinem guten Buch(e)

A. meinen guten Freund

meine gute Schwester

mein gutes Buch

Plural.

N. meine guten Freunde

meine guten Schwestern

meine guten Bücher

G. meiner guten Freunde

meiner guten Schwestern

meiner guten Bücher

D. meinen guten Freunden

meinen guten Schwestern

meinen guten Büchern

A. meine guten Freunde

meine guten Schwestern

meine guten Bücher

109. Adjective-substantives. Nouns made from adjectives or participles (see *b*) are declined as adjectives, but are written with a capital:—

	<i>the rich man</i>	<i>a rich man</i>	<i>the rich</i>	<i>rich</i> <i>people</i>	<i>that which</i> <i>is good</i>
N.	der Reiche	ein Reicher	die Reichen	Reiche	das Gute
G.	des Reichen	eines Reichen	der Reichen	Reicher	des Guten
D.	dem Reichen	einem Reichen	den Reichen	Reichen	dem Guten
A.	den Reichen	einen Reichen	die Reichen	Reiche	das Gute

a. (1) The gender of adjective-substantives which do not represent living beings can often be explained by supplying some word understood: die Linke, short for die linke Hand the left hand; der Bittere for der bittere Schnaps bitters; Gegenwärtiges (referring to das Schreiben *letter*) bezweckt Herrn G., Sohn eines unserer hiesigen Freunde, Ihnen bestens zu empfehlen. Zieh Dir rasch Dein Meergrünes (referring to das Kleid) an. The neut. form is used for the young of animals and for children (see 98. i. c): ihr Junges her (i. e. the cow's) calf, ein ganz Kleines a baby.

(2) The neut. adjective-substantive preceded by the definite article has a comprehensive, generalizing force: das Schöne the beautiful, all that is beautiful. The form without the article contains a collective idea: Schönes beautiful things. Kleinstes wird an dem getadelt, der in Menge Größtes adelt (Rückert) People censure very little things in him who puts nobility into many very great things. Für Fräulein Dora war natürlich mehrere dabei Among them were of course several things for Miss Dora.

The neuter adjective-substantive often has a meaning that cannot be embodied in one English word: sein Äußeres his exterior appearance; ihr Innerstes her inmost feelings. Lange, lange tönte es nach in dem metallenen Reifen, als habe die Glocke nun aus Eigem noch zu sprechen For a long time, after the ringing of the bell ceased, it kept on resounding as if it had now something to say of its own initiative. Morgen ein mehreres I will write something additional to-morrow. Er hat von einer Waise ein wenig geerbt He inherited a little property from a female relative. Er tut nie ein übriges He never does more than he must do.

b. Participles when used as substantives still retain their former verbal nature, and hence retain their adverbial modifiers and take direct objects: etwas längst Bekanntes something that has been known for a long while, ein Medizin Studierender a student of medicine (lit. one studying medicine). See 111. 7. d.

c. The unmodified adjective-substantive following *von* in a phrase which stands as an appositive to a preceding noun is regulated in its inflection by the article of the preceding noun, and also agrees with it in case: *Der Schlingel von Bediente* the rogue of a servant, *ein alter Held von Lohnbedienter*. If the adjective-substantive is modified by an adjective, it is uniformly in the dat. instead of agreeing in case with the preceding noun: *der Hund von einem alten Bedienten*.

d. The inflection of adjective-substantives was originally weak; see 111. 10.

110. Adjectives having a suffix sometimes vary from the regular inflection:

A. Adjectives ending in *-el*, *-en*, *-er* now usually drop in colloquial language the *e* of these suffixes when a case ending follows: *edel* noble, *der edle Mann*, *des edlen Manns*, &c.; *mit offenem Munde* with open mouth; *mit heitrem Blick* with cheerful look. Thus also adjective-substantives: *Der Edle*, *des*, *dem*, *den Edlen*. In dignified language the full form is now perhaps more frequent, less commonly, however, in case of the adjectives in *-el*: *der offene*, *der heitere*, *der edele* (or perhaps more frequently *der edle*). The older short form is still the rule when the suffix follows a diphthong: *der teure*, sometimes *der teuere*.

a. Nouns made from adjectives (see 111. 10) with these suffixes do not follow this rule of contraction, but that in vogue for nouns (see 62. C), and until recently also for adjectives (see b): *Das Übel* evil, *des Übels*, dat. pl. *den Übeln*. See c.

b. Goethe and also earlier writers usually contract the adjectives in *-el* and *-er* in harmony with verbs (178. 1. B. a and c) having the same suffix, as *edle*, *edler*, *edles*, *edeln*, *des* (*dem*, *den*, &c.) *edeln*, &c., thus dropping the *e* of the suffix before the case endings *e*, *er*, *es*, but before other case endings the *e* of the case ending itself. This usage is still not infrequently found, but in general the new and natural trend of colloquial usage is to make the declension uniform and after the analogy of the nom. to inflect: *der edle*, *des*, *dem*, *den edlen*, &c. This new tendency of the adjective to retain the *e* of the inflectional ending after *-el*, *-en*, *-er*, also manifests itself in any adjective in the case ending of the comparative after the degree suffix *-er*: *weicherer*, *weicher^{es}*, or *weich^{er}*, *weich^{res}*; *weicherem* or *weich^{er}em* rather than *weich^{er}m*. The noun, however, is true to the older rule (see 62. C), which requires the dropping of *e* after *-el*, *-en*, *-er*, and thus the new tendency of the adjective to retain the *e* of the case ending after these suffixes has isolated a few nouns and adverbs which are derived from such adjectives, so that their origin is not always felt: *der Jünger* (*des Jüngers*, dat. pl. *den Jüngern*) disciple, lit. *the younger* in contradistinction to the master (*Herr*), but *der jüngere* (dat. pl. *den jüngeren*) *Bruder* (dat. pl. *Brüdern*) the younger brother; thus also *die Eltern* parents, lit. older ones, but *die älteren Brüder* *the older brothers*, *das Dunkel* (*des Dunkels*) *darkness*, but *das dunk(e)le Zimmer* *the dark room*, gen. *des dunk(e)len Zimmers*; also *andere* (adv.) *otherwise*, but the adj. nom. neut. form *anderes*; *besondere* (adv.) *especially*, but the adj. nom. neut. form *besonderes*. See c.

c. Originally there was in most cases no vowel before the *l*, *n*, *r* in adjective and substantive suffixes. A vowel developed here in a later period which has ever since remained firm in nouns. However, in adjectives containing a diphthongal stem the vowel did not fully develop when a vowel followed in the next syllable, and we still say: *der teure* (or sometimes *teuere*). In other adjectives the *e* developed in the suffix and remained firm up to our time, as described in b. To-day the *e* of the suffix is often suppressed; see A.

In M.H.G. the *e* of the inflectional endings was suppressed after the

suffixes *el, en, er*. This older usage is still observed in nouns (see 62. C), and survives also in verbs before *n* (see 178. i. B. a) and sometimes in adjectives before *m* and *n* (see *b*, above). Present usage is not favorable to the mutilation of adjective inflectional endings. Thus the fluctuation described in the above articles represents the struggle of modern usage with older laws.

B. Adjectives ending in *ig* often in N.G. lose in pronunciation and sometimes in print the *i* of the suffix before the case ending *es*, while in S.G. the *e* of the case ending is rather suppressed: *mut(i)geß (mu:tjəs) Noß* (N.G.); *mutigē Noß* (S.G.).

PECULIARITIES IN THE DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

111. 1. Adjectives in the vocative (case of direct address) do not suffer an article before them, and hence are usually strong: *lieber Freund, liebe Freunde*. Not infrequently weak forms still occur in the plural, the survivals of a once common construction (see 6. a, below): *Guten Tag, jungen Leute!* (M. Dreyer in *Der Probekandidat*, p. 25). *Geht, lieben Leute* (Keyserling in *Der dumme Hans*, Aufzug 2).

a. In beginning letters an exclamation point is placed after the vocative: *Liebe Schwester! Liebster Bruder!*

2. Adjectives in the nom. and acc. pl. following the indefinite pronominal adjectives and indefinite numerals *andere* other, *beide* both, *einige* some, *einzelne* single, *etliche* some, *gewisse* certain, *manche* many, *mehrere* several, *fämliche* all, whole, complete, *solche* such, *sonstige* other, the remaining, *verschiedene* different, *viele* many, *irgend welche* any at all, *wenige* few, &c., are more commonly declined strong, although the preceding limiting word is strong and shows the case: *beide gleiche Hälften* (Fontane), *einige gute Bücher*. In the other cases of the pl. the adjective is wk. or str., perhaps more commonly wk.: gen. pl.: *weniger guten* (or not infrequently *guter*). Wk. forms occur also not infrequently in the nom. and acc. pl.: *fämliche deutschen Stämme* (*Über Land und Meer*), *solche dunklen Grübeleien* (H. Hoffmann). In the sing., adjectives after these words are almost uniformly weak: *einiges frische Obst*, but occasionally strong as in *Darin ist einiges Wahres enthalten* (Hauptmann). Thus after these words usage fluctuates principally in the plural, but the trend is also here toward regularity, hence toward the wk., especially so after the words *alle* *all* and *keine* *no*, which now regularly have wk. forms after them: *alle guten Bücher*, &c. Earlier in the period the strong form of the adjective is not infrequent after *alle* or *keine* either in the sing. or the pl., and survivals of this older usage still occur occasionally: *alles Gutes* (Lessing), *alle rechtschaffene Christen* (id.), *trotz aller angewandter Mühe* (Raabe's *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, II. chap. x), &c. *Solche* seems to be about to follow the example of *alle* and *keine*, as it often requires the weak inflection of the following adjective: *solche stillen Abende* (Fontane's *Schach von Wuthenow*, chap. iv).

a. In the gen. pl. after *zwei* and *drei* there is fluctuation: *das Zusammenreffen zweier gleichen* (or not infrequently *gleicher*) *Konsonanten*.

3. If several adjectives limiting the same noun are co-ordinate they have the same declension: *frisches, klares Wasser*. But if the second or second and third adjective stand closer in meaning to the noun, forming with it *one* idea, the first adjective is inflected strong and the following adjectives may be inflected weak, to show that they do not stand in the same relation to the noun: *folgendes eigene Erlebnis*. The rule of showing subordination in the adjective by placing it in the wk. declension is new and not yet firmly established, and is as yet restricted to the following cases:

a. The following adjectives, which resemble in their nature limiting adjectives, may after the manner of limiting adjectives require a wk. adjective after them, but usually only in the sing. and much more rarely in the pl., though the trend is in that direction: *benannt* aforementioned, *besagt*, *erwähnt*, *vorewähnt* aforementioned, *bewußt* the (point, matter, &c.) in question, *derartig* of this kind, *erster*: the former, *folgend* following, *gedacht*, *mehr gedacht* mentioned, several times mentioned, *letzter*: the latter, *nachstehend* following, *vorstehend* preceding, *obig* abovementioned, &c., all of which, contrary to the English idiom, may have no article before them: *folgender kleine Roman*, *bei der Besprechung von Harnacks erwähntem großen Werk*, *folgende wichtige* (or perhaps less commonly *wichtigen*) *Gründe*. Wir wissen bereits durch das *Töchterlein*, daß der Rat *Nebelung* nicht rauchte, sondern nur schnupfte, und letzteres harmlose Vergnügen hatten die Götter gleich benutzt, &c. (Raabe's *Eulenspiegel*, chap. iii). The sing. form is sometimes strong: *bewußtes einziges Erbtöchterlein* (Voss's *Psyche*, IV).

b. Also in the dat. sing. and less often in the fem. gen. sing. and the gen. pl. after any strong adjective a second adjective in the same way, to show subordination, *may* be weak: in *langem grauen Mantel*; ein Mann von *großem juristischen Wissen*; mit *vollendetem fünfzehnten Lebensjahre*; zu *nächster großen Messe*; wegen *eingetretener schlechten Beschaffenheit der Straße* (*Deutsche Rundschau*); *reiner französischer Weine*, &c. The second adjective is often wk. simply from an aversion to the recurrence of the uneuphonious ending *em*: mit *bleichem*, *verzerrten Gesicht* (Spielhagen). It is probable that the aversion to the repetition of such endings as *em* and *er* first gave rise to the wk. forms here, and later the mind perceived that there also often existed here a difference in the relation of the different adjectives to the noun, and then for logical reasons began to distinguish regularly between them by their endings. There is at present considerable fluctuation of usage here, some authors preferring the weak form, others the strong.

4. Adjective-substantives differ only rarely from the regular inflection of adjectives:

a. When an adjective-substantive follows one or more strong adjectives it is sometimes weak contrary to rule: *Vetrogene Sterblichen!* (Hagedorn). *Ein ehrwürdiger Alte* (Lessing). *Welch ein glücklicher Sterbliche!* (Heine). *Das Eigentum weniger Sterblichen* (Schiller). *Ein hübsches Ganze* (Goethe). *Ein herbes Äußere* (Heine). The weak forms occur still in the neut. nom. and acc. and in the gen. pl., as in *ein schönes Äußere*, *die Töchter härteßiger Alten* (Wildenbruch's *Das Riechbüchchen*, p. 10). Sometimes also in the nom. and acc. pl.: *Ihr seid schöne Getreuen* (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, I). The weak forms here are the survivals of a once common construction which required the inflection of adjective-substantives to be weak; see 10. *Note* and 6. a, below.

b. Adjective-substantives not preceded by an article or inflected pronominal adjective are now quite uniformly strong, although the older weak forms occasionally occur, especially in the words *Beamter official* and *Bedienter servant*: *Bedienten eilten ihm dienstfertig entgegen* (Temme). *Fünf neue Liebsten* (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. iv).

In the masc. dat. sing., however, the weak form is not thus restricted, but is in general still quite common: dem Herrn R. R., *Gesandten* or *Gesandtem* der Niederlande in Berlin. So blieb ihm als Mann, Held und Verliebten nichts übrig (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. xxix). The old wk. dat. of the neut. and fem. is also occasionally found: nach *genossenem Guten* (Raabe's *Höxter und Corvey*, chap. xv). Aber ein *sauberer Vrei* . . . *roch nach Besch.*, *Schwefel* und noch viel *Schlammern* (id., *Stopfkuchen*, p. 138). Im ganzen war übrigens diese Art, unversehens zu einer Art *Vertrauten* (used here with reference to a lady) von *wildfremden Menschen* gepreßt zu werden, nicht *bezüglich* (S. Junghans in *Zwei Brüder*, p. 62). Sometimes in other cases when the form follows a dependent gen.: aus *Treue* gegen den Bruder und dessen Angehörigen (Ludwig's *Zwischen Himmel und Erde*, X).

The weak forms in all these words are the survivals of a once common construction which required the inflection of adjective-substantives to be

weak; see 10. *Note* and 6. *a*, below. In early N.H.G. weak forms were much more common here: Und es giengen zu im (ihm) Blinden und Lahmen (= Blinde und Lahme)—Matt. xxi. 14. In the first element of compounds the plural form of adjective-substantives is still always weak: Armenarzt parish doctor, lit. doctor of the poor, Armenpflege relief of the poor, Gesehtenversammlung convention of learned men, &c.

5. An adjective which modifies a noun that stands in apposition with a preceding word is usually inflected regularly, but the following irregularities occur when the adjective is not preceded by an article:

a. The proper inflection of an adjective which is not preceded by an article and stands after a personal pronoun is not entirely clear to the German. As personal pronouns have neither an article nor the strong endings of the other pronouns to mark gender, it would seem natural for the adjective in a following appositional phrase to be inflected strong, which is also usually the case, except in the dat. sing. and nom. pl. and sometimes in the acc. pl., where according to present usage either str. or wk. forms may stand, in the case of the nom. pl. perhaps more commonly the wk., in the acc. pl. the str.: ich armer Mann, but mir armen or less commonly armen Mann, mir armen Bursch (Fontane), von Dir jungem Schnaufer (Raabe), mir francken Sohn der Mufen (Heine); mir armer or perhaps more commonly armen Frau, mit mir armen Fürstin (Freytag); wir alten Juristen (Raabe), wir Deutsche (Fontane), wir zwei Einsamen (Lienhard's *König Arthur*, 5); O ihr närrischen Leute (Raabe), less commonly strong after ihr: Ihr hochwürdige Herren (Anzengruber's *Der Schandfleck*, chap. ii), ihr plumpe, rohe Menschen! (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Zehntes Stück), ihr Auserwählte (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 71); für uns arme Frauen (Fontane) rather than uns armen Frauen, to distinguish it from uns (dat.) armen Frauen. Fluctuation often occurs even in the same author: Der junge Bursch mit dem Milchgesicht, er stellt uns Alte in Schatten (Meinhardt). Er schickt uns anderen in die Berge zur Erholung (Meinhardt). The weak forms here are survivals of a construction common in earlier periods; see 6. *a*, below.

b. When an adjective which modifies an appositive noun is not preceded by an article and follows a noun or pronoun, it is usually str. except in the gen. and dat. sing. of the fem., where the wk. form is also found, and perhaps more frequently so: von dem Herrn Erich Schmidt, ordentlichem Professor, but mit der schönen Baronesse Christine Arne, jüngsten Schwester seines Gutsnachbarn Arne (Fontane's *Unwiederbringlich*, chap. i). Man spricht jetzt von Frau Crescentia Koffel, geborenen Schopp (P. Heyse). Mit einer Art wilden Ironie (Raabe's *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, III. chap. vii). But also the strong form: von . . . dessen . . . Weibe Anna, geborener Weibfin (Raabe's *Meister Author*, III). Occasionally wk. forms occur in the masc. and neut. dat.: einem Stück gedacknen Fisch (Goethe), mit einem Stück brüchigen Eisen (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. xx), kleine Vorteile, die ihm als ältesten Hauptmann eigentlich zuzamen (*Tägliche Rundschau*). The wk. forms in all these cases are survivals of a construction common in earlier periods; see 6. *a*, below.

6. The adjective following a gen., especially dessen or deren, gen. of the demonstrative or relative, is sometimes wk., though the preceding word can in no way show their gender and case: in der Natur balsam'schen Wohlthat (Goethe). Es klang wie Erlösung aus Theas rasch hervorgestohlenen Frage (from a recent novel). Was in Preußen nur wenige, außerhalb Preußens niemand, auch nicht dessen besten Freunde, zu verlangen wagten, forderte nach kurzem Schwanken Treitschke (name) mit rückhaltloser Entschiedenheit: die Vereinigung Schleswig-Holsteins mit Preußen (Bailieu in *Deutsche Rundschau*, 1896, Heft 1, p. 61). Ihre . . . Augen . . ., von deren ihm gehörenden Wunderreichtum er nichts wußte (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 114).

a. This is the survival of a once common construction, which required the adjective to be weak when it had individualizing force, that is, when it expressed a quality that was to be especially attributed to the person or thing

in question. This limitation of the quality implied in the adjective to a distinct object was usually made still more definite by a preceding gen., a noun in direct address, or a preceding article or other demonstrative or word that pointed out the distinct object to which the quality was to be attributed. In accordance with this former rule the adjective is still always wk. after the article and demonstrative, and sometimes in the following cases: when used as a substantive (see 4. *a* and *b*, above, and 10. *Note* below), in the attributive relation before a vocative (see 1, above), before an appositive (see 5. *b*), following a gen. (see 6 and 4. *b*), and in the ordinal compounds *selbender*, *selbtritt*, &c. (see 126. 2. *c* and *Note*), where the distinguishing wk. ending has disappeared. The former individualizing force of the adjective is now little felt, as can be seen by the fluctuating forms given in 5. *a*, above. Its inflection to-day is usually a mere question of form, the str. or wk. being used according as no limiting word or a str. limiting word precedes.

7. The adjective is not declined:

a. When it is derived from the name of a city and is formed by adding *er* to the proper name: *der alte Berliner Lehrer* the old Berlin teacher, *des alten Berliner Lehrers*, &c. In substantive use, such adjectives are manifesting a tendency toward inflection, to the vexation of strict grammarians, who are mindful of the origin of the form (see *Note*): *Erzähle mir davon, aber nichts von den grönländischen Gespenstern*; *ich habe an unseren Hohen-Viefern* [name of place *Hohen-Vieß*] *über und über genug* (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, II. chap. xvi).

Note. Here *Berliner* is felt as an indeclinable adjective, and hence written sometimes with a small letter, but it is in fact a noun in the gen. pl., and means *of the people of Berlin*. That it is now felt as an adjective can be seen from the adverb which is often placed before it instead of the originally more correct adjective: *echt Münchner Löwenbräu*, or *echtes Münchner Löwenbräu* genuine Munich beer of the lion brand.

b. If it is the first of two or more adjectives which together unite in forming *one* idea: *rot und weiße Kühe* cows spotted red and white, *die weiß und roten Delden des Wasserliesch* (Fontane's *Stechlin*, chap. i), in *gäng und gäber Münze* in current coin. *Deutsche schmücken ihre Häuser mit schwarz, weiß und roten Fahnen* Germans adorn their houses with the national flag consisting of black, white, and red stripes. The inflection of the first adjective in a number of cases would entirely change the sense: *rote und weiße Kühe* red cows and white cows. Instead of the uninflected forms we also find now quite commonly compound adjectives: *ein schwarzrotgoldenes Banner* (Treitschke's *Deutsche Geschichte*, II. 422), *die schwarzrotgoldenen Farben* (ib., III. 756). In some cases two adjectives form a real compound, the second element alone assuming the inflection, but are written as separate words: *die großherzoglich badische Regierung* the government of the *grand-duchy of Baden*, *die königlich preussische Flagge* the flag of the *kingdom of Prussia*.

Note. In the early N.H.G. literary language it was quite common to leave uninflected the first of two adjectives connected by *und*: *ein groß und mächtiges Volk* (Gen. xviii. 18). This usage continued throughout the classical period and even later in poetic language: *in klar und trüben Tagen* (Goethe). Also where *und* is omitted: *Das Wicht'ge wiegt nicht gleich in dein'*, in *ihrem Munde* (Grillparzer's *Libussa*, 1). This usage survives only where the two adjectives form a real compound, as in *rot und weiße Kühe*. In such compounds the language of our time prefers the outward form of a compound and drops the *und*: *schwarzweiße Fahnen*. This fondness for the compound form goes so far that the first of two adjectives is now often left uninflected where they do not in a strict sense form a compound: in *schlicht* (instead of *schlichtem*) *treuherzigem* *Tone*.

c. In the case of the following adjectives, since they are only used as predicate complement or objective predicate, or in some cases in the appositive relation following the noun (see 104. 2. B):

(1) Adjectives which were formerly nouns and still resist adj. declension: *angst* uneasy, *brach* fallow, *feind* hostile, *gram* filled with dislike toward, *net*

necessary, schade too bad, a pity, schuld at fault, to blame for, wett even, quits : Mir ist noch angst. Er ist den Lügen feind. Das ist nicht not. Ich habe das nicht not (objective predicate). The absolute proof that these substantive forms are now felt as adjectives is the occasional comparative forms that occur : Mir tär' ein Köffe[in] Warmes noch nöter (H. Kurz's *Sonnemwirt*, 318).

Note. A number of substantives have thus first become predicate adjectives, and later were felt as genuine adjectives, and are now used attributively with full adj. inflection : fromm (from M.H.G. vrume *use*) good, pious, lit. useful. A number of nouns have not gone so far as the nouns in the above list, but have dropped their article in the predicate and now stand on the boundary line between adjective and noun : Ich bin Braut (=verlobt). Er ist mehr Diplomat als Feldherr.

(2) Also the following, which are now usually confined to the predicate or appositional relation, although a number of them were earlier in the period used attributively and hence inflected : abhold averse to, unfavorably inclined toward, abspenstig alienated from, abwenig alienated from, allein (from which comes the attributive form *alleinig* *single*, *sole*) alone, anheischig obligated, ansichtig with werden to *get a sight of*, aussindig with machen to *find out*, barfuß (in attributive use barfüßig) bare-footed, barhaupt (attributively barhäuptig) bare-headed, eingebend mindful of, gäng und gäbe (sometimes inflected ; see *b*, above ; similar formations, as flipp und flar, null und nichtig, recht und billig, also uninflected) current, gar done (of things cooking ; but in other meanings inflected : gutes Leder dressed leather, &c.), gesonnen willing, inclined, getrost of good cheer, cheerful (in this meaning sometimes inflected : Seien Sie getrosten *Mutes* !), gewahr aware of, with werden to *perceive*, gewärtig on the lookout for, expecting, gewillt willing, inclined, habhaft with werden to *get possession of*, handgemein engaged in close fight, irre astray, wrong, fund known, leid sorry for, disagreeable (in this meaning inflected in early N.H.G. and still in S.G. dialect), nütze or nutz (more common earlier in the period ; in early N.H.G. both forms are inflected, now replaced attributively and in large measure predicatively by nützlich, although the negative form unnütz is still quite common in both relations) of use, quit rid of, even (with somebody), teilhaftig sharing in, unpaß unwell, untertan subject to, verlustig deprived of, (with verbs) to lose, forseit, zugetan devoted : Er ist mir abhold. Ich mache mich dazu anheischig I pledge myself to do it. Der Knabe, eingebend der früher erlittenen Strafe, gehorchte.

d. When adjectives or participles which are modified by an adverb are converted into adjective-substantives, the limiting adverb does not make the corresponding change into the state of an adjective, but still like an adverb remains uninflected, though it modifies a substantive : die geistig Armen *those weak intellectually*, from the adjective expression geistig arm ; etwas längst Bekanntes. The words geistig and längst, though they apparently limit their respective substantives, do not take on adjective force and inflection, because the former still as an adverb limits the quality in the word Armen, and the latter modifies the verbal force in Bekanntes (perf. part.), and neither refer to the living being or the thing implied in the noun. However, if the word before the adjective-substantive limits the substantive as a whole, including both the quality (or action) and the individuals or things represented by the noun, it is inflected : geizige Reiche stingy rich people, ein fleißiger Studierender (pres. part.) a diligent student.

e. In the case of a very few foreign adjectives, especially those denoting colors : prima Material first-class material, das rosa Kleid the rose-colored dress, lila Schleifen lilac-colored bows. Thus also farnesin crimson, pansée pansy-colored, and a few others less common. They are of course inflected when compounded with the German words farbig or farben *colored* : in lilafarbigem Kleidern, in orangefarbnem Hut.

f. In a few geographical terms where adjective and noun together form one name : in Russisch Polen, or written together Russisch-Polen in Russian Poland, and many other similar expressions.

g. An apparent exception is the non-inflection of *eigen own*: Das ist mein *eigen*. Here, however, *eigen* is a neut. substantive, which, though once in common use, is now so little used that it is quite usually felt as the common adjective *eigen*, and hence is written with a small letter.

h. In the case of the following adjective-substantives:—

(1) When no article precedes and they are mentioned in pairs, or occur in set prepositional expressions: Der Abstand von reich und arm (see 54. 3), von vornehm und gering the contrast between rich and poor, genteel and humble, gleich und gleich 'birds of a feather,' jung und alt young and old, schwarz auf weiß in writing, von klein auf from early childhood, &c.

(2) When the adjective-substantive characterizes a general condition of things, always without the article:

(a) As subject or predicate: Gut ist gut und besser ist besser A good thing is good, but a better thing is better yet. Allzu scharf macht schartig An extreme condition or position of things is like a knife with too fine an edge, it will break off. Ehrlich währt am längsten Honesty is the best policy. Thus also of participles: Schlecht geritten ist besser als gut gegangen. Frisch gewagt ist halb gewonnen A bold start brings us half the victory. Unversucht schmeckt nicht You can't tell how it tastes till you try it. Feuer auf den Herd gemacht ist gut für Gewitter Fire upon the hearth is good protection against lightning.

Note. These participle-substantives can not only be modified by adverbs, but also as in the last sentence can have an object.

(b) As an object: Wir haben frei We have vacation. Sie haben recht You are right. Er hält gut für böse He considers good bad. Er macht aus arg ärger He makes a bad matter worse.

(3) Of colors when used in the abstract; but when a concrete meaning enters into the substantive, inflection according to the adjective declension takes place: das Braun brown, Schwarz black, Grün green, das Blau des Himmels. Often with an *s* in the gen. instead of the indeclinable form, except after sibilants: des Blau(s), Braun(s), Schwarz, Grün(s). Dieses Grün entsteht aus der Mischung hellen Gelbs und dunklen Blaus. But with concrete meaning: das Schwarze the bull's-eye of a target, der Braune brown horse, das Grüne the green fields, Grünes greens, ein Grüner a greenhorn, a hunter (from color of his uniform), das Weiße im Auge.

(4) Of languages when used in the abstract with regard to their quality, their varying forms in different periods and in different dialects, their employment as a mode of personal expression, but when they take on more concrete meaning and become names of definite things, as the languages of nations, they are declined according to the adj. declension: ein schlechtes Deutsch a bad German, das Deutsch der heutigen Zeit, die Aneignung eines dialektfreien Deutsch, in mattem Deutsch in pithy German. Er übersetzte das Gedicht in sein geliebtes Deutsch He translated the poem into German, his favored mode of expressing himself, but Er übersetzte das Gedicht ins Deutsche He translated the poem into the German language. Er beschäftigt sich mit dem Deutschen He is studying the German language.

8. The adjective in the predicate is now uninflected, but in M.H.G. was here inflected as elsewhere, as one or two fossilized remnants still show: Er ist voller Tüde. This strong masc. nom. sing. *voller* is still much used in the predicate before nouns not preceded by a modifier, but all feeling that it is a masc. nom. sing. is lost, as it is used of all genders and numbers as predicate complement, as objective predicate, or in the appositive relation: Das Stück war voller Handlung. Die Finger sind voller Ringe, but before an adjective modifier voll von schönen Ringen. Wir werden das Haus voller Gäste haben. In letzter Zeit war die unglückliche Frau in Schulden und Net geraten, aus der sie, voller Verzweiflung, wohl keinen andern Ausweg sah als den Tod. Sometimes also before modified nouns, where the adjective is usually strong, but sometimes also weak: voller böshafter Schnurren (Lessing), voller tiefen Sorgen (id.). Man

war voller peinlichen Erwartung (*Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, Jahrg. 1901, 9. Nov., p. 5). In the language of the common people halber and aller are also used like voller: Die Nacht ist halber hin. Darnach wann sie sein aller voll (*Bayerns Mundarten*, I. 190). Der Kaffee steht au aller noch da (Anzengruber's *Fleck auf der Ehr*, 2, 14). In the last example aller may be a case of real predicate inflection, which still survived in early N.H.G. and may live on more or less intact in the dialects. In the neut. sing. and in the pl., predicate inflection of all is still common even in the literary language: Das ganze Bild ist alles Licht (Goethe). Diese waren alle anwesend. Elsewhere non-inflection in the predicate is now the rule: Die Welt ist all ein flüchtig Scheinen (Freiligrath). This uninflected all, sometimes in the form of alle, is also used sometimes for the neut. sing. alles: Wie das Landvolf all herbeilief (Goethe). Wie das Zeug alle hieß (id.).

The inflected pl. form alle has become a fixed form for all genders and numbers in the meaning *all gone*: Der Wein ist alle. Meine Hyazinthen sind alle. Also the uninflected form is used here: Ihr kleines bißchen Brot ward nicht all (Gebrüder Grimm).

In some Alemannic dialects the predicate adjective is inflected still as in earlier periods: Herr Vetter, Ihr seid grobe (= grober, here in rhyme with lobe)! (Scheffel's *Trompeter, Lieder jung Werners*, VII). D' Nacht ist fisteri (= finstere) (Frei's *Schulgrammatik*, art. 67), S' Wätter ist ugstüems (= ungestümes) (ib.) The weather is stormy.

9. As explained in 104. 2. B. a. Note 2, the adjective is not inflected when it follows its noun, because it is felt as the predicate adjective of an elliptical clause; but if such is not the case and it is felt as an attributive adjective it must be inflected here as elsewhere: Zum dritten Male durchsuchten wir das tyrchenische Meer, das wir nun in all seinen Launen, freundlichen und schlimmen, kennen gelernt hatten. Spion, infamer! (Lienhard's *Münchhausen*, 1). Often in the market reports: See, indischer, ruhig (*Hamburgischer Correspondent*, 22. Juli 1903).

10. Some adjective-substantives cannot be either strong or weak like adjectives, but are inflected according to one of the regular declensions for common or proper nouns: der Herr (compar. of the adj. hehr august, honored) master, gentleman, des Herrn, pl. die Herren; die Eltern (compar. of alt old) parents, der Junge lad, des Jungen, pl. die Jungen (colloquially in N.G. die Jungens), ein Junge a lad, but the word applied to the young of animals has the regular adj. inflection, as ein Junges, pl. die Jungen, zwei Junge; der Fürst (M.H.G. vürste *the first*, wk. superlative) ruling prince, des Fürsten, &c.; der Oberst (superlative) colonel, des Obersten, &c.; der Greis old man, des Greises, pl. die Greise; der Jünger disciple, lit. *the younger* in contradistinction to the master or teacher, des Jünger's, pl. die Jünger; das Gut estate, des Guts, pl. die Güter, but das Gute that which is good, des Guten; das Übel evil, des Übels, &c.; das Recht right, des Rechts, pl. die Rechte, and thus also Unrecht injustice; the fossil gen. Rechtsens (in such common expressions as das ist Rechtsens That is the law, in accordance with the law, &c.), the wk. gen. of the adj. recht to which a strong gen. has been added; das Dunkel darkness, des Dunkels, but still with adj. declension in certain set expressions: ins Dunkle gehen to go out into the dark, im Dunkeln tappen to grope in the dark; many names of persons, now inflected like other names of persons: Herr Weiße, Rothe, Schwarze, Braune.

Note. The weak declension was originally the form of declension usually employed in the inflection of adjective-substantives. The final e (wk. nom. ending) in proper names, as Braune, Schwarze, &c., still shows that the former inflection here was weak. Also a number of the words enumerated in the above article have still retained in their oblique cases in the sing. and throughout the pl. their original wk. inflection. Some of these nouns which are now usually strong were weak in an earlier period and occasionally even still: Des Greisen (now usually Greises) Wange (Uhland). Adjective-substantives in N.H.G. have more and more conformed their inflection to that of adjectives, until at present it is strictly required of them aside from the special cases described in the above articles.

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS.

ASCENDING COMPARISON.

112. Adjectives are compared by adding *-er* to form the comparative and *-st* to form the superlative :

Positive.	Comparative.	Relative Superlative.	Adverbial Superlative.
schlanf slender	schlanfer	der, die, das schlanfste	am schlanfsten
klein small	kleiner	der, die, das kleinste	am kleinsten

A few monosyllabics modify the stem vowel in the compar. and superl. ; see 113. 4.

1. *Inflection.* The above are, with the exception of the superlative, the simple uninflected forms as found when the adjective stands in the predicate : Wilhelm ist klein, Karl ist kleiner.

In the attributive relation the positive and comparative are declined by adding the regular strong or weak endings to the simple positive and compar. : ein kleiner Knabe, ein kleinerer Knabe, der kleine Knabe, der kleinere Knabe, &c.

The *relative* superl. adds *st* to the simple positive and is inflected strong or weak, both attributively and predicatively, except, however, the one form *allerliebste* (see 3. C. a, below), which is uninflected when used predicatively : Mein kleinste Buch. Hans ist der kleinste Knabe. Unter allen Bäumen ist dieses der kleinste.

The *adverbial* superl. always remains unchanged (see 231. II, an, 1. A. b).

2. The comparative is used in general just as in English with the following exception. The comparative is sometimes used in German absolutely, i. e. to indicate that the degree of the quality is not conceived with reference to any particular object or objects, but only in a general comparative sense : Die ältere Dame the comparatively old lady, the elderly lady, neuere Sprachen modern languages, seit längerer Zeit for some time. Er gehört zu den besten, wenigleich noch nicht zu den guten Schülern He is a pretty good or comparatively good student, but not among the really good students. Wir sind in diesen Zimmern gewöhnlich nur an kühleren Sommer- oder wärmeren Herbsttagen. This comparative is used much more widely in poetry than in prose, and often where in the latter we would use a positive, especially in hexameter verse, where the compar. so readily forms a dactyl : Ein fremder | Geist verbreitet sich schnell über die fremdere Flur (Schiller's *Spaziergang*).

a. Earlier in the period, even in the classical authors, the superlative was sometimes loosely used of two objects, from the desire of making the superior degree more prominent : Wir wollen sehen, welcher Genius der stärkste (instead of der stärkere) ist, dein schwarzer oder mein weißer (Goethe).

3. The different forms of the superlative and their use :

A. The *relative* superlative expresses only relatively the highest degree, and thus represents the highest degree attained by some person or thing as compared with other persons or things of the same class : *Hans ist der fleißigste von all den Knaben. Der fleißigste Knabe ist Hans.*

B. The *adverbial* superlative, which is restricted to the predicate, represents the highest degree attained by some body or thing as compared with itself at different times, places, and under different circumstances, which are usually indicated by some accompanying adverbial element : *Der Sturm war am heftigsten gegen Morgen. Hier ist der See am tiefsten. Ich fühle mich am glücklichsten, wenn ich allein bin.*

a. The adverbial superlative is not strictly confined to the above use, but is often used in the predicate in a relative sense in accordance with its literal meaning (see 231. II, an, 1. A. b), whenever the attribute is felt distinctly as a real predicate form, no one particular noun being understood, and hence must always be employed when the objects or acts compared are not of one kind : *Karl ist der fleißigste (understand Schüler), but Wer ist im Schreiben am besten?* (lit. at that which is best, i.e. in the first place). *Am verlegensten war der Justizrat; aber er sammelte sich rasch* (Fontane's *Unterm Birnbaum*, XI). *Waren die Erdbeeren nicht besser als die Stachelbeeren? Ja, aber die Trauben waren am besten.*

b. There is one exception to the rule that the adverbial superlative is only found in the predicate: *am meisten* and *am wenigsten* are often used substantively, and hence can stand in any position where a substantive would be found : *Nichts bedürfen ist göttlich; und am wenigsten (object) bedürfen bringt der Gottheit am nächsten. Sie wissen, ich verliere selbst am meisten (object) dabei.* They are also, as any substantive indicating quantity, followed by a partitive gen., which now usually (see 94. 3. A and B) goes over into the appositional construction : *Die Stebe . . . | in welchen am meisten (subject) seiner Thaten geschehen waren* (Matt. xi. 20). *Sie warteten die Zeit ab, in welcher am meisten (subject) Menschen (in apposition with am meisten) die Habeburgerstraße passierten.*

C. There is also an *absolute* superlative (with the same form and inflection as the relative superl.), which expresses in and of itself a very high, not necessarily the highest, degree : *allerliebste* very pretty indeed, *eine allerliebste Blume. Die Blume ist allerliebste* (112. 1).

a. This superlative is not common in German in the predicate relation except in the category *cc*, below, and in the one word *allerliebste*, which is thus used attributively or predicatively, as can be seen in the above examples. In the attributive or substantive relation the absolute superlative is not infrequently used, but is usually confined to particular categories. It is employed especially :

aa. In direct address or at the close of a letter : *liebster Sohn* dear son, *teuerste Schwester* dear sister, *Ihr ergebenster Freund* N. N. Your most devoted friend N. N.

bb. In many prepositional phrases, used adverbially : *in tiefster Trauer* in the deepest sorrow, *in bester Stimmung* in the best humor, *mit größter Hochachtung* with very great respect.

cc. Before names of materials and other articleless nouns, to indicate in a general way a high degree : *feinstes Weizenmehl zu billigstem Preis* very fine flour at a very reasonable price, *erste Schriftsteller* authors of the first rank, *beste*

Sorten brands or sorts that are among the best. Es war lieblichster Frühling. Einfachste, tiefste Harmonie ist im Sturm, wie in der Windstille (Raabe's *Leute aus dem Walde*, III. 5). Auf sadeste Dummköpfe machte er Eindruck, auf Arnold nicht (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act 1).

dd. Sometimes after ein, fein, jeder, alle (pl.), and other pronominal adjectives: eine leiseste Spur a very faint trace. Kein leisester Hauch regte sich Not the faintest breath of wind stirred. Jede leiseste Berührung every touch, even the faintest, alle bedeutendsten Züge aus der Helbenfage all of the most important features of heroic legends. Der Artikel ist von vielen ersten Autoritäten warm empfohlen This article is warmly recommended by many of the very best authorities. Nun wird sich gleich ein Gräulichstes ereignen (= ereignen; Goethe's *Faust*, II, l. 5917).

b. More usually this idea is expressed by placing sehr, hoch, äußerst, überaus', or some such word having the general meaning of very, before the positive: ein sehr or höchst fruchtbares Land a very fertile land, indeed.

In colloquial language in German as also in English a high degree is often expressed, not by an adverb and the positive of an adjective, but by certain simple adjectives which have become very emphatic, such as famos' splendid, capital, riesig gigantic, very great, pyramidal' very great, large, lit. pyramidal, kolossal' very great, &c.: famoser Kerl, famosese Wetter, ein riesiges Vergnügen. Alles bricht in pyramidalen Jubel, in Fanatismus aus (Gutzkow). Such words can also be used adverbially, like sehr, &c., to strengthen an adjective: ein kolossal netter Mensch a 'mighty' nice fellow.

4. The force of the comparative is often heightened by prefixing weit or bei weitem by far, and that of the superl. by aller (gen. pl.) of all: Karl ist weit fleißiger als Emil. Gustav ist der allerfleißigste.

5. The proper conjunctions to be used with the different degrees are discussed in articles 239. 1. a, b and 2. a.

113. The following variations from the regular comparison as given above occur:

1. a. Adjectives ending in el, en, er sometimes form their comparative by suppressing the e of the suffix as in the positive, and sometimes in addition also the e of the case ending before n: der ed(e)lere, des, dem, den, die, der ed(e)ler(e)n. See 110. A. b.

b. The superlatives of adjectives ending in el, en, er retain the e of the suffix: der heiterste Morgen.

2. Monosyllabic adjectives ending in a sibilant, s, ß, sch, st, or in b and t, add est to form the superlative: der älteste, &c. Often, however, contraction takes place in familiar language: der härteste, älteste, süßte, &c., instead of der härteste, älteste, süßeste, &c., the hardest, oldest, sweetest, &c. The contraction of größt from größest is now the usual form even for the literary language. Grammarians generally give it as the only form, but größest is not infrequent: mit dem größten Vergnügen (Raabe's *Alle Nester*, I. chap. xiv), mit dem allergrößten Eifer (Wildenbruch's *Neid*, p. 90), &c. Adjectives of more than one syllable ending in b and t uniformly add st to form the superlative provided the syllable preceding the st is unaccented: der blindeste, but blendendste. Even after an unaccented syllable we find est here if otherwise a combination of consonants would arise which would be difficult to pronounce: in der böschafesten Gemüthsverfassung (Raabe).

Adjectives ending in isch may add st: die kindischste Torheit. Some recommend here t as a superlative ending, as the f is often absorbed in the preceding sch:

der bäu(e)rifchte. Our time, however, seems averse to the mutilation of grammatical forms, and hence we even find here the ending *eft* as a way out of the difficulty: das Praktifcheſte.

a. Sometimes to avoid such and other clumsy forms writers and speakers prefix *am* *meiſten* or *im* *höchſten* Grade to the positive to form the superlative: als die *am* *meiſten* praktiſche der drei Damen (Roquette); *am* *meiſten*, or *im* *höchſten* Grade barbariſch.

3. We often find the comparative repeated, the two forms being separated by *und*: *weiter und weiter farther and farther*, or *ever farther*. Instead of this form we also find the positive instead of the first comparative: *rot und röter* (Goethe), *naß und näher* (Johannes Scherr's *Schiller*, II. chap. iii). Die Blide der Mütter wurden fühl und fühlter, die Händedrücke der Väter flüchtig und flüchtiger (O. v. Leixner). In the language of the early part of the period the first member of such expressions is often a positive in form, but in fact a comparative, the suffix *-er* being understood in accordance with older usage, which often in case of two words separated by *und* expressed the suffix or case ending but once (see III. 7. b. Note): Erdenft noch ſchön und ſchöner Weiß (Spee's *Trutznachtigal*, 5. 83), viel weiß und bleicher als der Mon (ib., 38. 11). Thus also in case of the superlative: in den allerſchön und luſtigſten Landſchaften (Zesen's *Adriat. Rosemund*, 154. 13).

4. The following monosyllabics are mutated in the comparative and superlative: alt old, arg bad, arm poor, groß coarse, groß large, hart hard, hoch (see 5, below) high, jung young, kalt cold, flug wise, krank sick, kurz short, lang long, naß(e) (see 5, below) near, ſcharf sharp, ſchwarz black, ſtark strong, warm warm. Example: arm, compar. ärmer, superl. der, die, das ärmſte or am ärmſten. The following are sometimes mutated and sometimes unmutated: bang anxious, blanz bright, polished, blaß pale, dumm stupid, fromm pious, geſund healthy, glatt smooth, farg stingy, knapp close, tight, frumm crooked, naß wet, rot red, ſauber clean, ſchmal narrow, zart tender, and a number of others, all of which mutate more or less frequently in the individual cases in familiar speech, though not so commonly in the written language. Of these doubtful words bang, dumm, and rot are, perhaps, more commonly mutated, but the unmutated forms are not infrequent. Rot is usually unmutated in figurative meaning and in compounds, as in die röteſten Gefinnungen *the most extreme socialistic views*, die dunkelroteſte Roſe *the rose of the darkest red*; but sometimes with mutation: der röteſte Sozialdemokrat (Telmann's *Was iſt Wahrheit?*, V). Also a number of other adjectives which usually mutate in simple forms usually remain unmutated in compounds, as in case of rot: der flügſte *the wisest one*, but auf die altflügſte Weiße in the most precocious manner, &c.

Note. In a former period of the language the comparative and superlative had each two methods of formation: the comparative ended in *-ir* or *-ör*, the superlative in *-iſt* or *-öſt*. Those that had *ir* and *iſt* were of course mutated (see 26. A), and the others did not suffer mutation. Later *ir* and *ör* became *er*, and *iſt* and *öſt* became *est*, mutation alone distinguishing still the former groups. Many words which were not entitled to mutation assumed it later after the analogy of the mutating group. Since the classical period, however, mutation has been slowly declining.

5. The two adjectives hoch *high* and naß(e) *near* are irregular: in hoch the *ch* becomes *h* when a vowel follows in the degree or case ending, as der hohe, der höhere, but der höchſte; naß becomes nächſt in the superlative. We sometimes find an unmutated absolute superl. of naß with *h* instead of *ch*: das Nochnäherbringen von zwei ſo allernäheſten Herzen (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!* III, p. 270).

6. Sometimes words for especial emphasis or to convey a little different idea than is usually implied in them are compared when in their ordinary meaning they do not admit of comparison: Du biſt mein und nun iſt das Meine meiner als jemals (Goethe's *H. u. D.*, IX. 311). At the close of letters we sometimes find: Der Deinigſte, der Ihrigſte. We say die eiſernſte Herrſchaft *außen* *to exercise the most oppressive* (lit. most iron) *authority*, although in a literal sense eiſern cannot be compared.

114. *Adverbs* have in the positive usually the uninflected form of adjectives, and also elsewhere have no inflection whatever. They are compared just as adjectives except in the superlative:—

Positive.	Comparative.	Relative Superlative.	Absolute Superlative.
hart hard	härter	am härtesten	aufß härteste
schön beautifully	schöner	am schönsten	aufß schönste

1. The *relative* superlative (see 231. II, auf, 2. G. Note) of the adverb expresses the relatively highest degree attained by somebody or something as compared with somebody or something else, or with itself at different times and under different circumstances: *Er schreibt am schönsten von all den Knaben. Die Sonne steht um Mittag am höchsten.*

a. For a few adverbs which form the relative superl. differently, see 2. a and c, below, and also 117. 2. b.

2. The *absolute* superlative (see 231. II, auf, 2. G. Note) expresses in a general way a very high degree in and of itself without reference to that attained by anybody or anything else: *Er schreibt aufß (or auf daß) schönste He writes very beautifully indeed, lit. in the direction of that which is most beautiful.*

a. A few adverbs form the absolute superl. without the aid of prepositions by simply suffixing *st*, especially those in *ig* and *lich*: *balbigst* very soon, *innigst* very deeply, *höflichst* very politely, *gefälligst* be so kind, if you please, &c., and a few monosyllabics as *höchst*, *äußerst* very, *längst* for a long while, *allerliebste* very nicely, *meist* usually, almost, &c. This form is sometimes used with relative force: *die nächstfolgende Zeile*. Some of these words also have lengthened forms in *enst*, some of which are used relatively and some absolutely: (absolutely) *bestenst* as best I can, *meistenst* for the most part, *nächstst* presently, *schönstst* as nicely as possible, very much, as in *Ich danke schönstst*; (relatively) *erstenst* in the first place, firstly, *höchstst* at the most, *längstst* or *spätestst* at the very latest, *frühestst* at the very earliest, *mindestst* or *wenigstst* at the very least, &c.: *Er ist mindestst zehn Jahre alt.*

b. A few absolute superlatives are formed with *im* (with dat. of the adj.) instead of *aufß*, usually in negative sentences: *nicht im geringsten* or *im mindesten* not in the least, *nicht im entferntesten* not even the most remotely, *nicht im leinsten* not in the slightest.

c. The absolute superl. is sometimes formed with *zum* (with dat. form of the adj.) instead of *aufß*, and sometimes this form with *zumt* is used instead of the relative superl. with *am*: *Ich habe sie zum schönsten gebeten* I asked them as nicely as I could. *Nicht der, welcher zuerst, sondern zum (= am) sichersten auf den Feind trifft, hat sich dem Siege genähert.*

d. The absolute superlative is often replaced by the positive modified by another adverb denoting a high degree, such as *sehr*, *recht*, *höchst*, *äußerst*, *außerordentlich*, *ungemein*: *Sie tanzt sehr schön. Seine Gesundheit stellte sich wieder her, aber äußerst langsam.* In colloquial language, in German as also in English, a high degree is often expressed, not by *sehr*, &c. and the positive of another adverb, but by certain simple adverbs which have become very emphatic, such as *famoes* splendidly, *folesjal* hugely, very greatly, *riesig* very greatly, very much, &c.: *Ich habe mich famoes amüsiert. Ich habe mich folesjal gefreut. Ich langweile mich riesig.* See also 112. 3. C. b.

3. When an adverb modifies an adjective or participle, and it is a question of the higher or highest degree of the adverb and not the adjective or participle, the adverb should logically take the degree endings, but often the

adjective or participle takes it instead, as the two are felt rather as one word than two, and the adjective or participle usually standing last naturally assumes the endings of the compound: *schlechtest ausgerüstet*, &c., and also in good authors *schlechtest ausgerüstetste*, &c. The compound form is most natural in set expressions which have developed a peculiar meaning: *schwerwiegendste, tiefgreifendste, tiefgefühltester Dank, wohlgemeinteste Ermahnungen, feinsühlendste Leute, die gutgeartetesten Kinder, die hochgestellten Männer, hochfliegendste Pläne, weitreichendste Verbindungen*. A natural tendency to exaggerate leads some to give both words degree endings: *größtmöglichst* for *möglichst groß*, &c.

PERIPHRASTIC COMPARISON.

115. Besides the case mentioned in 113.2. *a*, where the periphrastic form of comparison occurs, are the following:

1. When two qualities of one thing, or two adverbs or adverbial phrases modifying one verb, are compared with each other, the comparative is usually formed by placing *mehr*, also *et*, before the simple positive instead of adding *er*: *Das Zimmer ist mehr lang als breit. Er ist eher klein als groß*. He is rather to be called small than large. *Er sprach mehr aufrichtig als klug. Sie drückte mich an den Busen mehr mit schmerzlicher als zärtlicher Bewegung. Er las eher laut als deutlich*.

The regular comparative suffix *er* is also used here in the classical period, and not infrequently still: *Vielleicht hat er wahrer als klug und fromm gesprochen* (Goethe's *Egmont*, 1, Palast der Regentin). *Das zweifenstrige Gemach war bedeutend länger als breit* (Raabe's *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, chap. vii).

2. In comparing two objects as to the one quality which each possesses in an eminent degree, *mehr* may be placed before the positive of each adjective, or the comparative may also be formed regularly with *er*, the former method, however, emphasizing the comparison of the predicates, the latter emphasizing the subjects: *Karl ist mehr klug, Wilhelm ist mehr schlau*; or *Karl ist klüger, Wilhelm ist schlauer*. *Mehr* is also used in the same manner in the attributive relation to call attention to the characteristic feature of some object: *Wüllersdorf war wieder darauf aus, das Gespräch auf mehr gleichgültige Dinge zu lenken* (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. xxviii). *Mehr praktische Ziele verfolgt die Broschüre, welche Prof. Dr. Hunziker in Aarau im Auftrage des Altdutschen Vereins herausgab* (A. Büchi in *Anzeiger für Indo-Germanische Sprach- und Altertumskunde*, xiii. Band, p. 62). *Eine mehr nebensächliche Rolle spielen bei der Ablauffrage folgende zwei uridg. Lauterscheinungen* (Brugmann's *Lautlehre*, p. 145). *Er war sehr ruhig und benahm sich verständig und war in seinen Urteilen so befestigt, daß er die mehr theoretischen Ausführungen von Pastor Frisius und die mehr praktischen Anschauungen, die Lehrer Haller entwickelte, bei allem guten Willen, den er als höflicher Mann hatte, nicht verwenden konnte* (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, chap. iii).

Mehr is also used in the predicate with reference to one person or object when the question is raised as to which of two qualities is more characteristic of the subject: *Ich Euch um den Hals fa — [llen] — seid Ihr mehr närrisch oder mehr frech?!* (Lienhard's *Till Eulenspiegel*, Der Fremde).

3. If an attribute of one object, or an activity, is compared with itself under different circumstances or at different times, the comparative is formed with *mehr*, or also regularly: *Ich war früher mehr bekannt und vertraut (or bekannter und vertrauter) mit ihm. Die Sache wird immer bedenklicher, or wird mehr (und mehr) bedenklich. Im Antiklausurdruck eigentümlich halb der Psyche und halb dem Amor gleichend, nur wollte es den Fortgehenden bedünken, als sei sie während seiner Abwesenheit dem letzteren etwas mehr ähnlich geworden* (Jensen's *Das Bild im Wasser*, p. 335).

a. Mehr is often used in connection with the word *immer ever*, or in the form *mehr und mehr more and more*, to indicate a gradual increase of intensity: *Er wurde dadurch immer mehr, or mehr und mehr verlegen, or immer verlegener*.

4. Adjectives and participles which require after them an object in an oblique case or a prepositional object, and thus approach the nature of verbs, are compared either as regular adjectives, or by placing *mehr* before the positive and *am meisten* before the superlative: Ludwig ist mir ähnlich; ich habe kein mir ähnlicheres or *mehr ähnliches* Kind (Daniel Sanders); keins meiner Kinder ist mir ähnlicher, or *mehr ähnlich*; er ist mir *am meisten* ähnlich, or *am ähnlichsten*. Dieser Beweis ist der älteste, klärteste (now *klarste*) und der gemeinen Menschenvernunft am meisten angemessene (Kant). Das mich *am meisten* Verdrüssende. Where the verbal nature of the participle, as in the last example, is distinctly felt, the compar. and superl. are more commonly formed by prefixing *mehr* and *am meisten* to the positive.

5. Adjectives (111. 7. c. (1)) or adverbs which are derived from substantives or other parts of speech and are not yet felt fully as adjectives or adverbs are usually compared with *mehr* in the compar. and *am meisten* in the superl.: Ich bin ihm *mehr* gram als dir. Das tut mir *mehr* leid als ich sagen kann. Dem jugendlich rastlosen Greise Blücher (proper name) wurde die Unentschiedenheit der Dinge zuerst und *am meisten* zuwider (also preposition and adverb). The regular forms in *-er* and *-st* are sometimes found, though rarely.

a. Thus also nouns and the pronoun *es* which stand in the predicate with the force of adjectives are compared: Er ist *mehr* Diplomat als Feldherr. Es war *mehr* Spaß als Ernst. Schön bist du; wüßtest du's minder, du wärest *es* *mehr*.

6. Some adverbs which denote a relative position with regard to the speaker or some other point form a comparative with *mehr* or *weiter* and a superlative with *am meisten* or *am weitesten*: Er stand *mehr* links He stood more to the left. See also 117. 2. b, second paragraph.

A few adjectives which denote a relative position, such as *äußer*, *inner*, *äußerlich*, form a comparative with *mehr*, but their superlative with the regular *-st* ending: Sonst ging die Entwicklung unserer Sprache dahin, die beiden Flexionsformen ganz unabhängig von Bedeutungsgruppen bei allen Adjektiven nach *mehr* äußeren Bedingungen zu regeln (Wunderlich's *Der deutsche Satzbau*, 1st edition, p. 170). Leute, die wenig oder gar kein Gewissen haben, würden auch allzu glücklich sein, wenn die ewige Gerechtigkeit *es* nicht so prächtig verstände, ihnen auch an *mehr* äußerlicher Stelle den Sachverhalt klar zu machen! (Raabe's *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, II. chap. viii). See also 117. 2. a.

7. *Es ist möglich*, *daß*, &c., is not so common as *Es ist eher möglich*, &c.

8. Occasionally we find periphrastic comparison elsewhere, where we should expect the suffix *-er*: Und dir ist Vaterland *mehr* als die Fremde *fremd* (Goethe).

9. Double comparison is rare: eine *mehr* schicklichere Ursache (Lessing). In den Donau-Fürstentümern ward die Lage des russischen Heeres *mehr* und *mehr* unhaltbarer (*Volks-Zeitung*, 24. 267). See also 117. 1. b.

DESCENDING COMPARISON.

116. Descending comparison of adjectives and adverbs is formed by placing *weniger* or *minder* *less* before the positive to form the comparative, and *am wenigsten* or *am mindesten* to form the superlative: hart hard, *weniger* (or *minder*) *hart less hard*, *am wenigsten* (or *am mindesten*) *hart least hard*.

IRREGULAR AND DEFECTIVE COMPARISON.

117. 1. Irregular adjectives and adverbs (the simple stem only is here given):

balb (adv.) soon	ether rather, sooner	balbigst as soon as possible.
früh (adj. & adv.) early, soon	früher (now less commonly baldern or balder) earlier, sooner	frühest (bälbest, balbest) earliest, soonest, first.
gern (adv.) willingly.	lieber (see <i>e</i> , below)	liebſt.
ungern unwillingly, often	regulär, more commonly, however, as gern.	
gut (adj. & adv.) good, well	besser (baß, adv.; see <i>d</i> , below)	beſt (gutest; see <i>f</i>).
wohl (adv.), sometimes used in the positive instead of	öfter (adj. & adv.; see <i>a</i>)	gut (see <i>c</i> , below).
oft (adv.) often or	öfterer (rare)	öſteſt (adv.)
oftmalig (adj.)		öſterſt (rare)
häufig (adj. & adv.)	häufiger (adj. & adv.)	häufigſt (adj. & adv.).
viel (adj. & adv.) much	mehr (uninfl.)	meiſt
	mehrer: (see <i>b</i>)	mehrſt (see <i>b</i>).
wenig (adj. & adv.) little (in amount or degree), pl. few	weniger (adj. & adv.)	wenigſt (adj. & adv.)
	minder (adj. & adv.)	mindeſt (adj. & adv.).

a. Öfter, comparative of oft, is often used adverbially in an absolute sense, and is to be distinguished from the relative comparative öfter: Das begegnet mir öfter That happens to me comparatively or quite often. Versuchungen treten uns öfter nahe, als wir glauben Temptations come near to us more often than we think. The comparative öfter is also used in adjective function in an absolute sense: öftere Besuche, seine öftere Gegenwart.

b. Mehrer: (due to double comparison) greater (before a sing. noun), more and mehrſt (superl. formed from the compar. mehr) most are not infrequent earlier in the period: Und da die Anfert ungelogen war zu wintern | bestunden ſie das mehrer teil auff dem Rat | von dannen zu faren (Acts xxvii. 12). Daß ein Aufenthalt in diesem Antikenſaal dem studierenden Künstler mehrere Vorteile gewährte, als eine Wallfahrt . . . nach Rom (Schiller, 3. 577). Die meisten dieser Unglücklichen (id., Kab. 2, 2). This older usage is still occasionally found: Zur Seite summt der heimliche Teſſel und von Zeit zu Zeit füllte er die kleine chineſiſche Taſſe mit der goldklaren Flüſſigkeit, der er zu mehrerer Vergeistigung aus blanker Kryſtallfaſche etwelchen Arrak zuſeſen pflęte (H. Seidel's *Der Luſtballon*). Solche Widerſprüche in den Entſchlüſſungen des Königs zeigten ſich nun bald immer mehrere und immer greßere (Karl Biedermann's *Dreißig Jahre deutscher Geſchichte*, I. p. 93). This older usage is most common in a few set expressions: Davon künftig ein mehreres more about that some other time, des mehreren more in detail, more fully. Mehrere (pl. of mehrer:), however, is still quite common as an indefinite numeral adjective in the sense of several; see 130. I. *h*.

c. Wohl is a predicative adjective which is only used in the meaning well with reference to the health or bodily comfort, and is entirely regular in comparison. It must not be confounded with gut, which besides its usual adjective meaning good is used as an adverb of manner with the meanings well, nicely, and also used as an adjective in the comparative and superlative with the force of wohl: Er ſchreibt gut, beſer, am beſten, but Ihm iſt heute wohl, wohlter or beſſer. Er befindet ſich wohl, wohlter or beſſer, am wohlſten or am beſten. Historically considered, wohl was originally not an adjective as at present, but the adverbial form of the adjective gut. This original usage occurs frequently as late as the classical period, and is still retained in adjective, participial, and substantive compounds and in a number of set expressions: wohlgemut, wohlſchmeckend, wohlverhalten, wohlbekannt, Wohlklang, Wohlgeruch, &c. Wohl is found before adjective participles also where they are not written as a part of a compound: Sein Hinterbüßchen war wohl geziert (Raabe). In set expressions: Er will mir wohl. Er tut wohl daran. Ich wünſche Ihnen wohl zu ſchlafen I wish you a good night's rest. Möge es Ihnen wohl

befommen! May it agree with you well! Mir gefällt der Kerl ausnehmend wohl (also gut) (Raabe's *Zum wilden Mann*, chap. x).

d. An old adverbial comparative of gut is *baß*. It is sometimes in antique style or dialect still used with the meanings *better, more, rather*, more frequently *very much, again, further*: Ich habe mich manchmal *baß* (very much) geründert über dich (Hauptmann's *Vor Sonnenaufgang*, 1). The adverb was not mutated in the compar. in older periods of the language as was the adj., as can be still seen in this fossilized form *baß* (adverb) in contradistinction to *besser* (adj.).

e. In earlier periods the comparison of *gern* was regular. It is also frequently regular in early N.H.G. and occasionally even later, and is still often so in popular language, which thus preserves here older usage.

f. The regular superlative of *gut* is not infrequent in colloquial speech, especially in comic or sarcastic language, only, however, in direct address: *Seh'n Sie, mein Gütester, das nennt man so Menschenliebe in den Tropen* (Schulze-Smidt's *O Tannebaum*, 1). *Ne, mein Gütester!* (Fulda's *Jugendfreunde*, 1, 7).

2. Defective adjectives with positive wanting, only used attributively or substantively:

Comparative.	Superlative.
Der, die, das äußere outer	der, die, das äußerste outmost
erstere former	erste first
innere inner	innerste inmost
hintere hinder	hinterste hindmost
letztere latter	letzte last
mittlere middle	mittelfte middlemost
obere upper	oberste uppermost
untere under	unterste undermost
{ vordere in front	{ vorderste foremost
{ vörrere (earlier in the period)	{ vörrerste (still surviving as an adverb; see b, below)

a. Of these *erst* and *lest* are superlatives treated as positives, from which compar. forms *erstere* and *letztere* have been made. The compar. forms of the others have been made from adverbs and are in force really positives, and of the one word *mittel* all three degrees can sometimes be found without difference of meaning: *der mittlere* (or *mittlere*, or *mittelfte*) *Finger*. When it is desired to impart real comparative force to these comparatives, which does not often occur, it is necessary to prefix *mehr*; see 115. 6.

b. Only the superl. of adverbs is formed from these adjectives: *zu äußerst* the farthest away, *zu hinterst* the farthest behind, *zu innerst* the farthest within, *zu mittelft* the farthest towards the middle, &c., and three in which *zu* and the adverb are written together, *zuerst* first, *zuletzt* last, *zuvörderst* or *zuuordest* foremost, in the first rank, in front, before all (things), in the first place, first and foremost. In the case of *zuvörderst* and *zuuordest* there is a tendency to differentiate, so that the former is used with regard to time and the latter with regard to place.

However, corresponding to these defective adjectives denoting a position are other adverbial forms of kindred origin, which with the aid of paraphrasing can form all three degrees: *außen* without, out of doors, *innen* within, *hinten* behind, *oben* above, *unten* below, *vorne* in front. Their comparatives are formed by placing before the adverb the comparatives *weiter farther* or *mehr more*, and their superlatives by the superlatives of the same adverbs: *oben, weiter oben, am weitesten oben*; *unten, mehr unten, &c.* Likewise in case of other adverbs denoting position: *links to the left, weiter links, am weitesten links*. In case of some of these adverbs we sometimes find here in facetious language the regular comparative ending *-er*: *Wenn wir sie erst links haben, dann ist's nicht mehr schwer: dann graulen wir sie ihm auch wohl immer linker* (Wilbrandt's *Hermann Iffinger*, chap. iii).

LIMITING ADJECTIVES.

118. A limiting adjective is one that merely defines or restricts the meaning of a noun.

Limiting adjectives differ in form or meaning from qualifying adjectives in that:

a. They do not stand uninflected in the predicate, and hence the masc. form for the nom. is usually, except in the case of uninflected words, given in the dictionary to represent the word instead of giving the simple stem, which only occurs in a few cases, as will be found recorded in the proper places. The simple stem of these latter words is often given to represent the word, as indeed these forms do sometimes occur.

b. They cannot all be inflected strong or weak. Some are always declined strong, even in the masc. and neut. gen. sing.; some are inflected str. or wk. according to circumstances. Thus the different groups of this class must be treated separately.

Note. The weak forms in this class of adjectives are in general of comparatively recent origin and have been gradually increasing, as they have been influenced by the declension of qualifying adjectives.

c. They cannot be compared, except a few which are treated under the head of comparison of qualifying adjectives; see 117, and 113. 6.

119. Limiting adjectives are divided into two classes—*numeral* and *pronominal* adjectives.

120. Cardinals:

NUMERALS.

0, null	20, zwanzig
1, ein, eine, ein, but eins in counting when no noun follows	21, einundzwanzig
2, zwei; early N. H. G. zween (masc.), zwo (fem.); see 121.	22, zweiundzwanzig
2. <i>a. Note</i>	23, dreiundzwanzig
3, drei	30, dreißig
4, vier	31, einunddreißig
5, fünf or funf (early N.H.G.)	40, vierzig
6, sechs	50, fünfzig (funfzig, pop. fufzig)
7, sieben	60, sechzig
8, acht	70, siebzig (siebenzig)
9, neun	80, achtzig
10, zehn	90, neunzig
11, elf, eilf (now obsolete)	100, hundert
12, zwölf	101, (ein)hundertundeins
13, dreizehn	102, (ein)hundertundzwei
14, vierzehn	200, zweihundert
15, fünfzehn (funfzehn, pop. fufzehn)	300, dreihundert
16, sechzehn	400, vierhundert
17, siebzehn (siebenzehn)	1,000, tausend
18, achtzehn	1,001, (ein)tausendundeins
19, neunzehn	10,000, zehntausend
	100,000, hunderttausend

eine Million a million, zwei Millionen two millions, eine Milliarde a thousand millions, eine Billion a billion.

121. Inflection :

1. Ein is inflected strong or weak as any qualifying adj. with several variations :

A. If it is used attributively and is not preceded by a limiting word, it is inflected exactly as the indefinite article, differing from it only in being more strongly accented: ein (see 58. B. a) Mann nicht zwei, ein Buch nicht zwei, ein guter Mann.

a. Before numerals used as collective nouns, before fractions and the substantive Uhr *o'clock*, and also before certain pronominal adjectives and nouns denoting an indefinite quantity, ein is found uninflected: mit ein (i.e. *about a dozen*, but for an exact dozen we say einem) Duzend guten Apfelsn. Ein Sechstel von ein halb, bleibt ein Drittel One-sixth from one-half leaves one-third. 20 multipliziert mit ein Viertel gibt 5. Nach ein Uhr after one o'clock, mit ein bißchen Mut with a little courage, in ein paar Tagen, mit ein wenig Geduld.

b. The uninflected ein is found in a few set expressions connected by und and oder (see 2. d, below): Ich sah es ein und anderem Augenpaar an, daß hier geweint worden war. Franzerl (proper name) war sein ein (or eins; see B, below) und alles. An einunddemselben Tage; zu (at) dreiundeinhalb Prozent; ein oder zwei Wochen; in ein oder zwei Stunden; in colloquial language in ein Tager (contracted from Tag oder) sechs in about six days, &c.

c. The uninflected form ein (or eine) is used in colloquial language to give a collective idea to nouns in the pl.: Er bleibt noch wohl ein (or eine) 8 Tage He will probably remain yet about a week. Vor ein 7, 8 Jahren about 7 or 8 years ago. Wenn ich nur eine 2 oder 300 Taler hätte! If I only had the sum of two or three hundred thalers!

B. If ein is preceded by some limiting word which cannot mark the gender and case of the noun, as the possessive gen. of a noun or pronoun, or the nom. masc. and nom. and acc. neut. of a possessive pronoun, it is inflected strong: Des Königs eines Schloß liegt in Stuttgart, das andere in Ludwigsburg. Mein Freund und dessen einer Sohn (or eine Tochter or eines Kind) sind schon angekommen. Wir feiern heute einen tragisch doppeltfehlischen Tag. . . . Indem sich mein eines Auge für die Grabrede feuchtet, fängt das andere für die fröhliche Geburtsrede zu lachen an (Wilbrandt's *Die Maler*, 2, 7).

C. Preceded by the definite article or some other limiting word which marks gender and case, ein is inflected weak: der eine Knabe; der eine, der andere the one, the other. In S.W.G. we find sometimes the form der einte instead of der eine when used in contrast to der andere.

a. In German, differing from English, the definite article may stand before the pl. of ein, referring collectively to one of two groups: die einen . . . die andern the persons in the one group . . . those in the other.

D. Used substantively, standing alone, ein is declined as a strong adj., the neut. nom. and acc. usually, however, in the contracted form eins: einer von diesen Herren, ein(e)s von diesen Büchern, so einer such a one.

a. The uninflected neut. form eins occurs in some very common idioms: zwölf Minuten nach eins twelve minutes after one o'clock, mit eins suddenly, von eins bis hundert zählen to count from one to one hundred.

2. The cardinals except ein are not now usually inflected: zehn Finger, einige zwanzig Jahre some twenty years, einige hundert Jahre several hundred years.

In case of the absence of some preceding article or pronominal

adj. to show case, the prep. *von* marks the gen. relation of these indeclinable numerals: *der dritte Teil von sechs ist zwei*. In the other cases the context as in English shows the case.

a. Sometimes *zwei* and *drei* are in the attributive relation declined strong in the gen. and dat. pl., if there is no preceding word to show case: *Zwei Zeugen Mund tut alle Wahrheit kund* The testimony of two witnesses establishes the truth. The gen. *zweiter, dreier*, occur more frequently than the dat. *zweiten, dreien*, as some preceding preposition in the latter case usually makes the dative relation sufficiently clear without the aid of the case ending. Sometimes we find the strong gen. pl. form of other numerals, but non-inflection is much more common: *während zwölfer Tage* (Niendorf's *Gudrun*, 1. 10).

The neuter of *drei*, and much more rarely of *vier*, has when used substantively developed strong sing. forms with collective force after the analogy of *beides* (see 139. 1. *d*): *Ich will alles dreies merken* I will note all three points. *Alles dreies wirkte mächtig zusammen* All three things worked powerfully together. *Und ich bin eigentlich alles drei's* (i.e. *Kind, Narr, Poet*) (Fontane's *L'Adultera*, XXI) And I am really all three (of the things you have mentioned). In popular language the neut. of *zwei* is often used instead of *beides*: *dieses zweies nehme ich*.

Note. In early N.H.G. the forms *zween* (masc.), *zwo* (fem.), *zwei* (neut.), were much used for the nom. and acc., and still occur in poetry and S.G. dialects. In the eighteenth century and later they are not clearly understood and hence often confounded. The neuter form has at last crowded out the masc. and fem. forms.

In a few compounds the older form *zwie* is found instead of *zwei*, as *Zwielicht* twilight, *Zwietracht* dissension, &c.

b. The numerals in *-zig* lengthen this form to *-ziger* to show the decades of the century or of human life, and remain uninflected: in *den achtziger Jahren* des vorigen Jahrhunderts in the eighth decade of the last century, *die nachhundertiger Zeit* the period in Germany after the great political changes of 1871, in *der Mitte der vierziger Lebensjahre* in the middle of the forties; see also 5, below.

c. When these numerals stand alone, either substantively or with some other noun understood, they are sometimes, especially in the dat. and least frequently in the gen., declined, usually with the inflection of nouns of the second class strong; but in general this inflection is limited to certain set expressions, and should rather be considered as quaint, and hence avoided: *diese vier* these four (boys), *sechs* (more common than *sechse*) *kamen* six (people) came, *wir sind unser sechs* (or *sechse*) there are six of us, *der Rat der Fünfhundert* the council of the 500 (in France, in 1795), *das Verhaben der Drei* the intention of the three, *ein Mann in den Sechzigern* (or *sechzig*); *wenn einer, wie ich, über die Achtzig(e) hinaus ist*; *zu drei* (or *dreien*) *sitzen* to sit three together, *auf allen viere(n) kriechen*, *mit sechsen fahren* to go in a coach and six. *Er hat alle neune geworfen* He has knocked down all the nine (nine-pins). *Er kam mit fünfzig* (more common than *fünfzigen*). *Allen viere(n)* (to all four persons) *sagte* Onkel Gottfried *zugleich* guten Tag (Ompfeda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XI).

Note. We sometimes find the substantive forms of numerals inflected like adjectives instead of non-inflection or inflection according to the 2nd class of strong nouns, much more frequently, however, early in the period: *Ich wil jnen nichts thun | vmb vierziger willen* (Gen. xviii. 29). *Das meine seele vnd die seele deiner knechte dieser funffzigen fur dir etwas gelten* (2 Kings i. 13). *Zehn Schüler haben gearbeitet: dieses sind die Arbeiten vierer, achter — ebenso hunderter, tausender* (Wetzels *Die deutsche Sprache*, p. 197, 10th ed.). *Das Schicksal aller viere(n)* (Blatz's *Neuhochdeutsche Grammatik*, I. p. 390, 3rd ed.); *die Augen tausender* (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, chap. xv). This inflection is also established in case of *drei* in the neut. sing.; see *a*, above.

d. Also numerals which are capable of inflection remain usually uninflected when brought into connection with uninflected numerals by some conjunction or preposition, or sometimes the inflected numeral agrees with the noun in the sing. (96. 10): in *einer Höhe von ein bis zwei Meter(n)*, *aus hundertundein* trüftigen

Gründen, or aus hundert und einem triftigen Grunde for a hundred and one good reasons, dreiundeinhalb (or drei und ein halbes) Prozent, in sechsundeinhalb Jahren, or in sechs und einem halben Jahr, ein für allemal once for all, in ein oder zwei Tagen.

Note. If an article or inflected pronominal adj. in the pl. precede such mixed numerals, the noun must be in the pl. and the numeral may remain entirely uninflected, or the declinable numeral, namely ein, may show the gender, not case or number, as it has no pl. forms, and hence no attempt ought to be made to make it agree with the governing noun in case and number: aus diesen hundertundein triftigen Gründen, unter den fünfeneinhalb or den fünf und eine halbe (agreeing with the noun in gender only) Millionen Sezessionisten among the five and a half million Secessionists. Ich habe mehr zu tun als eure tausend und eine Häfeleien zu schlachten. Some, however, make ein agree also in case, which sounds very harsh, as this attempt to make adj. and noun agree brings a sing. adj. before a pl. noun in the same case and brings about a clash instead of an agreement: von den tausend und einem Mißgeschicken (Sealsfield's *Transatlantische Reiseskizzen*, I. 64).

e. The numerals are especially uninflected in giving dates, numbers of houses (in the street), time of day, and often with suppression of the case form of the noun, the omission of articles, and even of nouns and prepositions: Leipzig hatte 350,000 Einwohner in 1890 (in imitation of the French, or more commonly according to the German idiom im Jahre 1890, or simply 1890) gegen 170,000 in 1885. Er wohnte (im) Dezember (des Jahres) 76 Lindenstraße 74 (short for im Hause 74 der Lindenstraße). Die Strecke Berlin-Potsdam, 1838 eröffnet, war die erste preussische Bahn The line between Berlin and Potsdam was the first Prussian railroad, opened in 1838. Ein Viertel (auf) eins or ein Viertel nach zwölf a quarter after twelve, halb (auf understood) zwei half-past one, drei Viertel auf drei, or ein Viertel vor or bis drei a quarter to three, or in railroad language as in English: zehn (Uhr) zwanzig (written 10.20).

3. When used substantively as names of figures, all numerals are declined weak, as they are all fem.: Die Eins ist nicht deutlich the figure 1 is not plain. Du hast die Fünf zu groß geschrieben You have written the 5 too large. Eine römische Zehn a Roman X. The form in =e is less common: So? und warum nennt Ihr | die Fünfe eine heilige Zahl (Schiller's *Piccolomini*, 2, 1). The plural always has -en: die Zahl 1881 enthält zwei Einsen und zwei Achten.

Note. These numbers are also used as feminine substantives in various other applied relations: eine schöne Drei von Freunden, eine böse Sieben a vixen, zwei Dreien a pair-royal of treys. So stellt sich endlich | die große Drei (Jupiter, Venus, Mars) verhängnisvoll zusammen (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 1, 1). Der einzig Eine bist du, doch du lebst | als eine mythisch große Drei die Welt (Platen).

Zwei and Drei are sometimes used as neuter substantives in a collective sense: Liebe, menschlich zu beglücken, | nähert sie ein edles Zwei; | doch zu göttlichem Gutgücken, | bildet sie ein festlich Drei (Goethe). Das schweizerliche Drei the three Graces (or the three Parcae or Fates).

4. Hundert, Tausend, Million, Milliarde, Billion, can be used substantively, and are then inflected as nouns, the first two according to the 2nd class strong and the others weak: Das erste Hundert, ganze Hunderte von Menschen. Es geht in die Tausende It reaches up into the thousands. Man schätzt die Zahl sämtlicher Rumänen (Roumanians) auf 10 Millionen.

5. Masc. substantives are formed from the numerals by adding er, all inflected according to 1st class strong: die Einer, Zehner, Hunderter units, tens, hundreds, ein Fünfer a 5-pfennig (in the Empire) or kreuzer (in Austria) piece, ein Vierziger a man of forty, ein Achtundvierziger one who took part in the stirring events of 1848, die Achtundzwanziger the troops of the 28th regiment, ein Gläsern

Dreihundachtziger a nice glass of wine of the year '83, ein Greis nahe den Achtzigern (or den achtziger Jahren, or den achtzigen, or den achtzig) an old man near the eighties, ein mittlerer Bierziger (Fontane) a man in the middle of the forties, ein Vierer a boat with four rowers, ein Siebener a member of a body or committee of seven. Some of these formations are also common in compounds: Viererzug team of four horses, Siebenerausschuß a committee of seven men.

122. Ordinals:

1. The ordinals except those for 'first,' 'third,' and 'eighth,' which are irregular, are formed by adding *t* to the numbers 2-19, and *ft* from 20 on. They are declined strong and weak as adjectives. Only the last number is inflected if compound.

1st der (die, das) erste	22nd der zweiundzwanzigste
2nd der zweite; earlier in the period also der zweite, die (fem.) zweite; also der, die, das ander (still found in anderthalb; see 126. 2. b)	101st der hundertunderste, sometimes der hunderterteinte or hunderterteinte
3rd der dritte	102nd der hundertundzweite
4th der vierte	103rd der hundertunddritte, sometimes der hundertbreite
7th siebente, or siebte, early N.H.G. siebende	107th der hundertundsieb(en)te
8th der achte (adds no <i>t</i>)	108th der hundertundachte
20th der zwanzigste	200th der zweihundertste
21st der einundzwanzigste	300th der dreihundertste
	1000th der tausendste

a. Ordinals are sometimes uninflected in the idiom *zu zweit, dritt, &c.*, with the force of *zu zweien, dreien, or zu zwei, drei two or three together*: Ich bin jetzt wahrlich nicht in der Stimmung zu dritt zu sein. Indeed I am not in a mood to have a third party with us.

b. Ordinal adverbs are formed by adding *ens* to the simple stem: *erstens* in the first place, *zweitens* in the second place, *zwanzigstens*, &c.

c. After the analogy of *der vierte* (&c.) and *der zwanzigste* are formed *der wievielte* and *der wievielfte* *what date, what number, how many*: *Der wievielte ist heute?* or *Den wievielten haben wir heute?* *What is the day of the month?* *Der wievielte waren Sie im Examen?* *What was your place in the examination?* *Die wievielfte Liebschaft ist dieß wohl?* *About how many love-affairs does this make that he has already had?* Also other similar formations occur: in der elfdreiviertelten Stunde *in the last quarter-hour*, literally, in the last quarter-hour before twelve. See also 126. 2. b.

2. The ordinals are often in certain set expressions replaced by cardinals, which in this case stand after the noun: Kapitel sechs chapter 6, Band fünf vol. 5, &c.

123. The ordinals all require an article or pronominal adj. before them, but *erst* often drops it and is then used in the sense of an absolute superl.: *erste Schriftsteller authors who are among the best*, but *die ersten Schriftsteller the best authors*.

124. *The days of the month.* As in English, the ordinal is used for the days of the month. Letters are usually dated after the following model: Berlin, den 5. (read fünften) März 1894. Ihr Schreiben vom 19. (read neunzehnten) ds. (dieses Monats), am Abend des 20. (read zwanzigsten), vom 3. (read dritten) bis 14. (read den vierzehnten) from the 3rd to the 14th, bis mit den 1. (read ersten) Oktober, or bis und mit den 1. Oktober up to and including October the first.

125. Distributive numerals are formed by prefixing je to cardinals or ordinals: Er gab den Knaben je zehn Pfennig He gave to each of the boys ten pfennigs. Die Gefangenen wurden zu je zwei und zwei (by twos) zusammengebunden. Je der zehnte Bürger every tenth citizen.

126. Compound numerals:

1. Numerals formed from cardinals are:

a. *Variative* numerals, which add *-erlei* to the simple cardinal, forming an uninflected compound: *einerlei* of one kind, *zweierlei* of two kinds, *dreierlei* of three kinds; *hunderterlei*, *allerlei* of all kinds, &c. The *lei* in these compounds is in reality a fem. noun in the gen., as can still be seen in the ending of the cardinal (*einer* fem. gen.), but it is felt and treated as an uninflected adjective: *allerlei gute Bücher* all kinds of good books, dat. *von allerlei guten Büchern*, *allerlei guter Wein* every kind of good wine, *Kinder beiderlei Geschlechts*, *die mancherlei Holterstrauben*, &c. Substantively: *mit hunderterlei solcher Vorzüge* (Hauptmann's *Friedensfest*, 3).

b. *Multiplicatives*, which add *-fach* and *-fältig* to the cardinal: *einfach* single, simple; *einfältig* simple (silly); *zweifach* and *zweifältig* twofold; *dreifach* and *dreifältig* threefold, &c. The inflection is strong and weak.

c. *Iterative* adverbs, which add *-mal* to the simple cardinal: *einmal* once, *zweimal* twice, *dreimal* three times, &c. Also with inflection: *das eine Mal*, mit einem Male all at once, zu vier verschiedenen Malen, &c. Also the ordinal is thus used: *das erste Mal* the first time, &c. See 2. d, below.

Note 1. Adjectives are formed from iterative adverbs by adding the adj. ending *-ig* to *-mal*: *ein dreimaliger Angriff* a thrice-repeated attack.

Note 2. Observe the difference of accent between *ein'mal* *once* and *einmal'* *once upon a time*. In the former case *ein* is a numeral and hence is accented, while in the latter case it is an article, and hence is unaccented. The article in *einmal* is, however, accented when the word indicates future time and is used in the meaning *irgend einmal' some time*: *Er wird doch ein'mal kommen* He will surely come *some time*.

2. Numerals formed from ordinals are found in:

a. The neut. substantives expressing fractions, formed by adding *-tel* (reduced form of *Teil part*) to the stem of the ordinals, suppressing, however, the final *t* of the ordinal before the *t* of the suffix: *ein Drittel* *a third*, *ein Viertel* (pro. *firtel*) *a fourth*, *sieben Achtel* = $\frac{7}{8}$, &c., but instead of *ein Zweitel* is used *ein halb* (121. 1. A. a and 139. 2. d, Notes 1 and 2) or *die Hälfte* (except in the technical language of business and music, where *ein Zweitel* is also employed, as in *Zigarren in Zweitelfisten*, eine *Zweitelnote*); *vier Hundertsfünftel* = $\frac{4}{5}$; *hundert und hundertvier Hundertsfünftel* = $100 + \frac{4}{5}$; *ein Hunderteintel* = $\frac{1}{100}$; *ein Hundertzweitel* = $\frac{1}{200}$; *ein Zwanzigstel* = $\frac{1}{20}$; *ein Hundertstel* = $\frac{1}{100}$. Sometimes *teil* is still used in full instead of the reduced form *tel*,

especially after *hundert* (formerly also used as ordinal instead of *hundertst*) in the meaning *per cent.*: ein Drittel *one-third*, 92 Hunderttheile 92 per cent.

Note. These substantives are often considered as indeclinable adjectives: ein fünftel Kilometer, eine fünftel Meile, drei viertel Pfund, drei viertel Stunden. The numeral may also be regarded as the first element of a loose compound, and hence both parts are then written as one word: eine Vierteltunde, ein Vierteljahr. The accent in such compounds still shows that they are not felt as true compounds; see 47. 3. A. e. (4) and 50. A. 7. f.

b. The compounds which add *halb* to the ordinal, which though formerly declined are now usually uninflected: dritthalb or drittehalb two and a half, lit. (two and) half of the third, vierthalb or viertehalb three and a half, &c., but always anderthalb (for anderehalb half of the second; see 122. 1; the *t* in place of *e* after the analogy of vierthalb, &c.) instead of zweit(e)halb. Exs.: Das sind schon dritthalb Jahre (Hebbel's *Agnes Bernauer*, 4, 3). Um dritthalb Jahre (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. ii). . . . hatte er seiner Wittve einen . . . viertehalb Fuß hohen Straßburger Münster hinterlassen (id., *Vor dem Sturm*, III. chap. iv). This construction is not now so common as zwei(und)einhalb two and a half, drei(und)einhalb three and a half, in sechs(und)einhalb Jahren, or in sechs und einem halben Jahre, &c. Anderthalb, however, is much more common than the other words of the same formation.

When these words in *=halb* stand alone substantively they *may* be inflected strong: Mein Vatter hett nur einen Arm, so hab' ich anderthalben (Fischart, *Garg.*, 94 b). The original nature of this construction requires the sing. form, and this still occurs, but the plural is now more common: auf einen Schelmen anderthalbe (Goethe). Für zwei essen oder wenigstens für anderthalbe (Kurz, *W.*, 89).

Corresponding inflected forms with a stem in *=t* and the force of ordinals occur occasionally: noch in der zwölftesthalbten Stunde (*Mont.-Ztg.*, 17. 17) in the last half-hour (before twelve). Sometimes the form without *t* is used here: in der zwölftesthalben Stunde.

c. In the following idiomatic compounds:

(1) Inflected: der, die, das zweitbeste the next to the best, der drittbeste the third from the best, der vorletzte the next to the last, der drittlezte the third from the last.

(2) Uninflected (see *Note*): selbander (not selbweit) myself the second, i. e. myself along with another, selbdritt myself the third, selbviert, &c.: Ich pflege selbander zu reiten. Inflection here also occurs: selbzwanzigster gefangen (Lessing's *Nathan*, 1, 5) taken prisoner along with nineteen others. The use of the cardinal here is less common, and from the strict standpoint of grammar is incorrect. It occurs, however, in the best authors: selbfünfe (Goethe's *Wanderjahre*, 2, 12), selbst (instead of self) funfziger (Lessing's *Emilia Galotti*, 3, 1).

Note. The apparently uninflected forms selbdritt, &c. are mutilated remnants of older weak forms, selbe dritte, &c. The force of the weak inflection is the same as described in III. 6. a.

d. The ordinals can be compounded with *maß* to form adverbs and with *malig* to form adjectives: erstmalß for the first time, die erstmalige Zusammenkunft der deutschen Architekten in Leipzig the first meeting of the German architects in Leipsic. Compare I. c, above.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

DEMONSTRATIVES.

127. The demonstratives, which can be used either adjectively or substantively, are: *dieser, diese, dieses* this; *jener, jene, jenes* that; *der, die, das* this, that; *derjenige, diejenige, dasjenige* that; *solcher, solche, solches* such, such a, or *solch ein* (, eine, ein), or *ein solcher, eine solche, ein solches*, or *so ein* (, eine, ein), or simple *ein, eine, ein* (see 131. 2. a); *dersel'be, diesel'be, dassel'be* the same; *sel'biger, sel'bige, sel'biges* the same; *der nämliche, die nämliche, das nämliche* the same; *der'artiger, der'artige, der'artiges* of such a nature. The inflection of these pronominals is treated in the following articles. For a few demonstratives or determinatives which are always uninflected, see 161. 2 and 3, also 143.

128. A. *Dieser, diese, dieses* *this*, and *jener, jene, jenes* *that*, are inflected like the strong qualifying adjective except in the genitive of the masculine and neuter sing., where the regular strong ending *-es* is used instead of the weak *-en* (see 108). In the nom. and acc. neut. sing. *dieses* is often contracted to *dieß*. In the masc. and neut. dative sing. we sometimes find the weak ending *-en* after a strong limiting adjective after the analogy of qualifying adjectives: in allem diesen Trübel (Bismarck to his wife, Nov. 17, 1848), allem diesen Jammer fern (Marriot's *Der geistliche Tod*, p. 266, 5th edition).

a. The forms *dieses* (or more commonly *dieß*) and *jenes* remain uninflected when they are used in connection with the verb *sein* and a predicate noun, to indicate that the subject is identical with the predicate: Erlauben Sie mir, Ihnen die Herren vorzustellen. *Dieß* ist Herr Schmidt und *jenes* ist Herr Meyer. *Dieß* ist eine schöne Blume. *Dieß* sind schöne Blumen. Ist dies Ihre Feder? Note in these sentences that the verb agrees with the predicate. The regular inflected form showing the proper gender and number can also be used: *der* or *dieß* ist der Schuldige.

b. *Dieß* is also uninflected when it is used as a subject or object referring to something that is introduced to one's attention by a gesture or explained by the context immediately preceding: Wofür halten Sie dies? What do you take this for? *Dieses* alles geschah auf der Mittagsseite des Schlachtfeldes.

B. *Dieser*, often strengthened by the adverb *hier*, refers to something near the speaker, while *jener*, often strengthened by some adverb as *da, dort* *there, yonder*, points to something more remote: *dieses* Haus *hier* und *jenes* *dort*; in *dieser* und *jener* Welt in this world and the one to come. Hence *dieser* is often translated by *the latter* and *jener* by *the former*: Der Frühling und der Herbst hat seine Freuden: *dieser* gibt Früchte, *jener* Blumen.

Both are used much more in the attributive than the substantive relation. The neut. sing., however, is often used substantively (see A. a and b). Also the other genders are frequently employed in the substantive relation in the meanings *the former, the latter*.

a. *Jener* is also much used to indicate something well known, either by referring backward to some definite person or thing

already mentioned or represented as well known, or by pointing out somebody or something that is so described in a following adj. clause as to be represented as standing in general for a class of familiar persons or things rather than for definite individuals: jene eben citierten Stellen. Jene Blätter, nach denen Sie fragten, habe ich noch nicht gefunden. Es war jene Nacht, in der die dickbauchige, schwarzgeteerte Holländer Kuff gegen den Büsener Deich jagte (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, III, 1). Ada war nicht von jenen Puppen, die mit sich machen ließen, was man wollte. Flechten von jenem schönen Kastanienbraun, wie man es in Deutschland so selten findet. Ihm kam der Gedanke, sein Oheim müsse auch zu jenen Menschen gehören, die ein Verständniß für die Sprache der Naturdinge besäßen (Jensen's *Das Bild im Wasser*, p. 87). Er meint jene Sorge, die uns zu furchtsamen Sklaven des Tages und der Dinge macht, jene Sorge, durch welche wir stückweise an die Welt verfallen (Harnack's *Das Wesen des Christentums*, Fünfte Vorlesung).

b. Often, especially in popular ballads, jener is used in a quite indefinite sense, indicating a place well known to the speaker, but not in any way described so as to be clearly recognized by those addressed: Da droben auf jenem Berge, | da steht ein feines Schloß (Heine). Die Sonne hebt sich noch einmal | leuchtend vom Boden empor, | und zeigt mir jene Stelle, | wo ich das Liebste verlor (id.).

c. For determinative use of jener, see 130. 2. a.

129. I. Der, die, daß *that* are used either adjectively or substantively, but with somewhat different inflection for each use. Adjectively used, der is inflected exactly like the def. article, differing from it only in being strongly accented, and hence in print is sometimes written with a capital, spaced letters, or furnished with an accent: Der, d'er, or der'. Used substantively it is declined as follows:

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Common form.
N.	der	die	daß	die
G.	{ dessen des	{ deren der derer	{ dessen des	{ deren der derer
D.	dem	der	dem	denen
A.	den	die	daß	die

2. From the beginning of the N.H.G. period there has been considerable fluctuation in the use of the demonstrative forms, and usage is not yet entirely settled. The prevailing usage of our time seems to be as follows:

A. Genitive Forms. The form here depends upon the grammatical function:

If the demonstratives are used attributively before the noun the short forms are uniformly used: der Name des (that) Knaben, der, &c.; die Namen der Knaben, die, &c.

If the demonstratives are used substantively, the forms vary according to their grammatical function and fall into four groups:

First group. If they are used as pure demonstratives, or instead of personal pronouns (see 141. 2) or possessives (see 138. 2. d), the

forms are quite uniformly: (sing.) dessen (masc.), deren (fem.), dessen (neut.); (pl.) deren (for all genders). Exs.: Ich erinnere mich dessen nicht mehr I do not remember that any more. Sie empfing ihre Freundin und deren (her) Tochter. Es lagen Spanier hier; deren erinnere ich mich sehr wohl. Nimm die Trauben, ich habe deren (of them) genug.

Second group. If they are used determinatively followed by a relative clause, the forms are: (sing.) dessen (masc.), derer, deren, or still more commonly der (fem.), dessen (neut.); (pl.) derer for persons, unless it stands before the governing noun, where the form is usually deren (sometimes derer); pl. for things deren, or more commonly derjenigen, sometimes derer. Exs.: Es ist der Sohn dessen, den wir gestern gesehen haben. Das Glück derer, die fern von ihm war (Ompeda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, LXXVIII). Der Himmel hat durch die Hand derer, die du liebst, mich davor geschützt (Jensen) (also deren and more frequently der, but better der Dame. It is often better in the gen. of the fem. to use a noun here, as the thought will otherwise be impaired, for the forms derer and deren are felt as plural, and der has not yet become fixed here as a sing. in contrast to the plurals derer and deren). Das Schicksal deren, die ihn trug (Auerbach's *Dorfgeschichten*, I, 61). Sich lächerlich zu machen in den Augen der, die ihn zu einem Gott erheben kann (Spielhagen's *Selbstgerecht*, II, p. 45). Der Herr vernichtet die Macht derer, die sich wider ihn auflehnen. Trockne die Tränen von deren Gesicht, die dann um mich weinen (Kleist). Bei dem Studieren der Wissenschaften, besonders deren, welche die Natur behandeln (Goethe). Das Stück . . . Es war eins derer (now more commonly derjenigen), die damals Beifall fanden (id.). Das Jahrhundert | ist meinem Ideal nicht reif. Ich lebe | ein Bürger derer (now more commonly derjenigen), welche kommen werden (Schiller). Reißt alle, alle [Blumen] ab, | sogar die Knospen derer (now more commonly derjenigen), die erst kommen (Hebbel's *Nibelungen*, II, V, 7).

Third group. If they are used determinatively followed by a gen. or a prepositional phrase, the forms are: (sing.) dessen or des (masc.), der (fem.), dessen or des (neut.); (pl.) derer for persons, deren (also der and sometimes derer) for things. Exs.: Die Besprechungen meines Anwalts und dessen (or des) meines Gegners haben zu einem Vergleich geführt. Ich bin in Sorge nicht sowohl wegen deiner Angelegenheit, wie wegen der deines Bruders. Sie erinnert sich gern ihrer Freundinnen, besonders derer aus ihrer Schulzeit. Er fand neue Bundesgenossen statt derer aus frühern Zeiten. Sie erinnert sich gern ihrer frühern Erlebnisse, besonders deren (or der) aus den Schuljahren. Ihre Augen hatten nicht ganz das leuchtende Blau, auch nicht den tiefen Ernst derer Sophiens (Perfall's *Der schöne Wahn*, p. 60). To this group also belongs derer before von in names of people of noble birth: das Geschlecht derer von Logau.

Fourth group. The following corrupted gen. forms, dessen (masc. and neut.), derent (derer) fem. gen. sing. and gen. pl. for all genders, are not infrequently found in composition with wegen *on account of*, um — willen *for the sake of*, halb(en) *on account of*: derentwegen *on account of these things*, &c. There is, however, a tendency in choice language to restore the correct form, especially in case of um — willen: Wenigstens hoffe ich, daß sich Ihre Einrichtungen in Braunschweig . . .

werden so gehäuft haben, daß Sie wenigstens derenwegen bleiben müssen (Lessing). Ich will kein Geld von Euch; um dessen willen bin ich nicht gekommen (Storm's *Im Brauer-Hause*, p. 102). Ein mutmaßlich aus einem alten märkischen Herrenhause herstammender . . . Pfeilerspiegel . . . lieb der ärmlichen Einrichtung trotz ihres Zusammengesuchtseins oder vielleicht auch um dessen willen etwas von einer erlöschenden, aber doch immerhin 'mal das gewesenen Feudalität (Fontane's *Poggenpuhls*, chap. i).

a. The short gen. form *des* is now quite rare aside from the use in the second and third groups given above and its employment in adverbial and conjunctive compounds, as *um deswillen on account of that* (with reference, not to a particular object, but to a thought: „Wie kann ich jetzt auch an mein wirbelndes Dasein ein andres zu fetten wagen?“ „Begreifst du nicht,“ flüsterte sie, „daß ich gerade um deswillen zu dir stehen will?“—Telmann's *Wahrheit*, XXIV), *deswegen on that account*, *deshalb* (earlier in the period *deshalben*) *for that reason*, *desgleichen likewise*, *indes* (more frequently, however, *indessen*) *while, in the meantime*, *unterdes* (more commonly, however, *unterdessen*) = *indes*, also in the combinations *des und des*, or *des und jenes of this one and that one*, and in poetic language and old sayings, as *Des Brot ich esse, des Lied ich singe* I sing the praises of him whose bread I eat. These are survivals of early N.H.G. usage, where the short gen. forms *der*, *des* (later also falsely written *desj*) were the rule. The short form *des* has become quite firm in the above-mentioned adverbial compounds *deswegen*, &c., where the reference is to a thought, less firm, however, in *indes* and *unterdes*, where the same idea is found. The long form *dessen* is also often used here in *indessen* and *unterdessen*. The corrupted form *dessent* is sometimes used in the adverbial compounds *dessentwegen*, &c., where the reference is to a thought, but it is more commonly employed where the reference is to a definite antecedent. Either *des* or *dessen* is used in connection with *um willen* when a relative clause introduced by *was* follows: Er (T. Mommsen) war seit langer Zeit in Wahrheit der Führer der Universität, nicht nur um des Glanzes seines Namens willen, sondern um deswillen, was er ihr leistete (Adolf Harnack in *National-Zeitung*, 1903, No. 588). Ich sage das aber, Kind, um dessen willen, was mir noch zu erzählen bleibt (Spielhagen's *Was will das werden*, I, chap. xi).

The new lengthened forms *derer* (fem. gen. sing. and gen. pl.) and *denen* (dat. pl.) were formed by adding the regular strong adjective endings to the original short forms. The origin of *dessen* and *deren* is not yet clear.

In early N.H.G. also the lengthened forms *dere* and *dero* were used with the force of *deren*: Denn welche diese Grevet thun dere seelen ausgerottet werden von jrem volck (Lev. xviii. 29). Of these *Dero Your, His*, used in speaking to and of persons of high rank, still lingers on in official style and in the language of the princely courts: *Dero Erlaubnis* the permission of Your (or His) Highness.

b. Earlier in the period the distinction that the short forms should be used in the gen. and dat. for attributive and the long ones for substantive use was not known, and even in the classical period was not yet fully developed: Ich habe oben gesagt, der Raum sei die Ordnung derer Dinge, die zugleich sind, die Zeit hingegen die Ordnung dessen, was auf einander folgete (Chr. Wolff). Denen Bauherren gefiel mein Vorschlag sehr wohl (Goethe). Present usage is nicely reflected in the following sentence from Wildenbruch: Seine dunklen, blaugrünen Augen hatten den scharfen Blick der Menschen, die viel und aufmerksam mit der Natur verkehren, und seine hageren Gesichtszüge jenes nach innen gefehrte Lächeln derer, die viel erlebt haben, und deren (151. 1) Herz ein gutes Gedächtnis besitzt. The lengthened forms are to-day found attributively only in antique or, as in the following sentence from Hans Hopfen's *Studiosus Taillefer*, p. 37, in comic style: Es kam ihm vor, als sollt' er von ihm wie von dem Repräsentanten aller derer braven Burschen, die eben nicht vom gleichen Bande umschlungen gewesen waren, das ihrige aber in Ehren getragen hatten, gleichfalls gerührten Abschied nehmen.

c. The genitive forms *dessen* and *deren*, which are used instead of a possessive (see 138. 2. d), are, though they are genuine pronouns, sometimes treated by the authors of our time as adjectives and inflected like *sein* and *ihr*: *Minna* blieb von ihrem Gatten bis zu dessen Tode getrennt (Stahr's *Goethes Frauengestalten*, 2. 286). Jene Esenheimer Pfarrertochter, von deren naiven, liebevollen Wesen mehr als ein Zug auf das Märchen der Dichtung übergegangen ist (ib., 1. 119). Er macht eine Reise nach Italien, aus deren Schweizer Anfänge wieder entzückende Briefe stammen (*Gegenwart*). This is as yet confined to the dat. of the masc. and neut. See also 151. 1. c. In the same manner within historic times the possessive *ihr her*, *their* was developed out of the gen. of *sie*. There does not seem to be any prospect of a repetition of this historic development, as *dessen* and *deren* are losing ground.

B. Dative Forms. The form depends upon the grammatical function in the dat. pl. The distinction is the same as for the gen., namely, the short form is used attributively before the noun, the lengthened form substantively: von den Leuten, die, &c.; mit seinen Verwandten und denen seiner Frau.

a. Earlier in the period the lengthened form *deren* was also used in the fem. dat. sing.: Hab deren zu Lieb ein neu's Lieblin gedicht, so Guer Gnab das begehrt zu hören, wollt' ich's deren zur Lege singen (Wickram's *Rollwagen*). Still in dialect in the form of *dere*, *deren*, or *derer*: Wann ich nur von derer wegfimm! (Anzengruber's *Kreuzelschreiber*, 2, 9). Also in adjective function: Ich frag' dich nur, ob du glaubst, daß du in derer Weise was richt'it? (id., *Schandfleck*, xiv).

b. Earlier in the period the distinction between attributive and substantive use of the double forms had not developed so sharply as to-day: von denen (now *den*) Leuten, die, &c. (Goethe).

C. The Nominative and Accusative Form *daß*. The neut. nom. and acc. *daß* (in dialect frequently spoken *des* or *dös*) often remains uninflected in the following cases:

(1) Like *dieß* (see 128. A. a) the nom. is used to express identity: *Das ist meine Feder. Das sind meine Federn.* It is often very similar in meaning to *dieß*: *Ist das (or dieß) der Weg auf den Bahnhof?*

(2) It is often used as subject or object, a more emphatic form than *es*, referring without regard to the gender of the noun to some object at hand, some matter in hand, a condition of things, or an activity: *Wie heißt man das? What do you call that? Das geschieht ihm recht That serves him just right. Das geht bei mir nicht so That won't do with me. Das können wir nicht ruhig mit ansehen We cannot tolerate that. Das verwickelt sich Matters are becoming complicated. Er arbeitet unermüdlich, das ist seine Freude.*

(3) *Das* with sing. verb is used to represent a class of people as a whole: *Kinder leben sorglos dahin; das singt und spielt bei den ernstesten Tagen des Lebens.* Often also with reference to one or more in a contemptuous sense: *Will das (referring to Riccaut) zu uns? (Lessing's Minna, 4, 2). Aber das (i. e. die Arkeusiere) denkt, wie ein Seifenfieder (Schiller's Lager, 1. 1006).*

(4) As a predicate, to refer emphatically to an idea already expressed in some preceding noun, adjective, or participle: *Er ist ein Bettler, or Er ist arm. Das war er früher nicht. Dieses Frauenzimmer gibt sich für die Tochter des englischen Konsuls aus. Das ist sie auch in der Tat.*

Also *es* can be here used instead of *das*, and indeed much more

frequently, differing, however, from it in that it is less emphatic and has not the freedom of word-order, only standing after the verb: *Er ist jetzt ein Bettler, or Er ist jetzt arm; er war es (or das) aber früher nicht.* Dieses Frauenzimmer gibt sich für die Tochter des englischen Konsuls aus. Sie ist es auch in der That. Sie meint, du seist entflohn; und halb und halb bist du es schon.

D. Dative and Accusative after Prepositions. After prepositions the demonstrative usually takes the adverbial form, if it points to things; see 141. 5. A. *b, c, d.*

Note. This adverbial form is, however, usually replaced by the inflected form of the demonstrative when it points to a following relative clause: *Der Minister hat die Kommissionsmitglieder gebeten, von dem (instead of davon), was er zur Begründung der Vorlage gesagt hat, nichts in die Öffentlichkeit kommen zu lassen.* This rule is not rigidly followed: *Auch wußten sie nichts da'von (instead of von dem), was an diesem schönen Sonntage vorging (G. Keller).*

3. *Der, die, das this, that,* are the most popular demonstrative forms, although the least definite, as they are used in a general way for both *dieser* and *jener*, indicating the position of objects as near or distant only by the aid of a gesture or the context.

Der is used substantively more than attributively, yielding in large measure to *dieser* and *jener* in the latter function. In several substantive relations, however, *dieser* and *jener* are common; see 128. A. *a* and *b*; 128. B. Besides the meanings of *dieser* and *jener*, *der* has other meanings, often replacing the personal pronouns (see 141. 2) and being used like *derjenige* (see 130. 2) as a determinative followed by a genitive, prepositional phrase, or relative clause. Before a genitive and a prepositional phrase it is much more common than *derjenige*. In all these common substantive uses of *der* the primarily adjective forms *dieser* and *jener* are little used.

a. *Der* is not infrequently omitted before a dependent gen., not only in poetry as stated by grammarians, but also in plain prose: *Und welsch ein Band ist sicherer als [das] der Guten?* (Goethe's *Tasso*, 3, 2). *Durch wessen Schuld ist sie so geworden, wenn nicht durch Ezards und Galeidens?* (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxiv).

130. 1. *Der'jenige, die'jenige, das'jenige that* are declined as if each element (*der* and *jenige*) were written apart and the latter element were a wk. adj. Used adjectively or substantively, their declension is as follows:

	Singular.			Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Common form.
N.	der'jenige	die'jenige	das'jenige	die'jeningen
G.	des'jeningen	der'jeningen	des'jeningen	der'jeningen
D.	dem'jeningen	der'jeningen	dem'jeningen	den'jeningen
A.	den'jeningen	die'jenige	das'jenige	die'jeningen

a. Earlier in the period up to the close of the seventeenth century we find here the simple wk. form of *jen*: *dem jenen, welcher...* (Opitz 1. 105). From the sixteenth century we find the lengthened form *jenig*. Earlier in the period it could be used without the def. art.: *ich verfluch alle jenige, die anderer Meinung sein (Fischart).*

b. The form *dieserjenige this one (here)* is used in popular speech: *Ich denke immer, der hat sich aus einer andern Welt in diesejenige verirrt und kann den Weg nicht wieder zurückfinden (Raabe's Schüdderrump, chap. ix).*

2. Derjenige, unlike *der*, which is either a determinative or a pure demon., has only determinative force, i. e. is followed always by a gen., prep. phrase, or a relative clause: *derjenige, welcher that one who*; nicht mein Hut, sondern *derjenige* meines Bruders; nicht dieses Buch, sondern *dasjenige* im roten Einband; *derjenige* Mann, *welcher*. There is no difference of meaning between the determinative *der* and *derjenige* except that the latter is a heavier and consequently more emphatic word. *Der*, however, is much more common with a gen. or prep. phrase.

a. Sometimes also *jener* is used determinatively instead of *der* or *derjenige*, either modified by a gen. or a relative clause. *Der* hohe Adel zürnte über den politischen Einfluß des Bürgertums, welches im Reichsrat das Ansehen des Herrenhauses durch jenes der Abgeordneten in Schatten stellte (von Sybel). Mir dienen | als Zeugen jene, die's mit Augen sah'n (Fulda's *Der Talisman*, 4, 6). Mir gering ist die Zahl *derjenigen*, welche sich mit der Venus beschäftigt haben, noch geringer die Zahl *jener*, welche auf diesem Planeten etwas gesehen haben, und am allergeringsten die Zahl *jener*, deren Beobachtungen wirklich einen Wert besitzen (Leo Brenner). Wenn er von jenen Dingen sprach, die er der Welt und dem Leben abzurufen . . . hoffte, so war immer nur von inneren, seelischen Gewinnen die Rede (Ganghofer's *Der Glücksucher*). Also in general usage *jener* or its governing word is followed by a relative clause, but it here differs in meaning from the determinatives *der* and *derjenige* in that it only points out somebody or something that has already been mentioned, or refers to something well known, or some *class* of familiar persons or things. For examples and further explanation of this use of *jener* see 128. B. a.

131. I. *Solch such, such a* is strong or weak as any adjective, but is uninflected before *ein* and inflected or uninflected before an adjective. If strong, the gen. of the masc. and neut. sing. ends properly in *es*, but, as in the case of qualifying adjectives, a weak gen. is often found. Exs.: *solcher* kleine Hund, or *ein solcher* kleiner Hund, or *solch* kleiner, or (perhaps the most common form) *solch* ein kleiner Hund; *solches* or *solchen* Glückes ungewohnt. *Not such* is translated by *kein solch*: Ich bin kein solcher Narr. Substantively: *Solch* einer sollte mir kommen! Just let such a fellow show his face to me! Mußte nicht Christus *solches* leiden? (Luke xxiv. 26). Das sind ein Paar Ohrgehänge, wie der Herr keine zweiten *solche* findet in Venedig (H. von Hofmannsthal's *Der Abenteurer und die Sängerin*, p. 171).

a. In colloquial language *solch* is very commonly replaced by *so* ein, negatively often in popular language in the form *so* kein: Von so einem Manne spricht man Jahrhunderte. So einer *such* a one, &c. So kein Gesicht sah ich in meinem Leben! (Goethe's *Faust*, 2808). Ich habe einen Hunger, *so* hab' ich mein Leben lang keinen verspürt. Instead of the neuter substantive form *solches* we now more commonly hear in colloquial speech *so* etwas: Hat man je *so* etwas gehört? So etwas verlernt sich nicht *so* leicht. Instead of the attributive *solch* we often find the adverbial form *so* in popular language: Es gibt *so* Mänschen (i. e. girls), die hübsch weiche Schnäbel haben (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. i).

Note 1. So *ein* is often used referring to something so well known that there is no need of detailed description: Er trägt auch so einen großen breitkrämpigen Hut He also wears one of those large broad-brimmed hats (which are now so commonly worn). Ich möchte *so* ein Bilderbuch für ein kleines Kind haben I should like to have a picture book such as would be suitable for a little child.

Note 2. So *ein* is often contracted to *so'n* and quite frequently takes a plural, although simple *ein* has no form for the plural: Ich dachte, wenigstens unsere streng gesitteten Kreise halten sich — *so* — nen — *so'ne* Sachen vom Hals (Sudermann's *Heimat*, 1, 7).

b. Instead of *solch* we sometimes find in colloquial language *so* *welch*, only, however, in the substantive relation: *Es sind Waldbeeren; so welche wachsen in den Gärten nicht* (Storm's *Unter dem Tannenbaum*, vol. I. p. 191).

c. Different from the above is the case where a qualifying adjective follows the demonstrative and the idea of the intensity of the quality is more prominent than the demonstrative idea. Here *such*, *such* *a* are usually translated by *so*, *ein so*: *such* bad weather so *schlechtes* Wetter, *such* a good man *ein so guter* Mann.

2. *Solch* is also a determinative, followed by a relative clause, a genitive, or a prepositional phrase: *Zur Begleitung eines Flügels sang dort eine angenehme weibliche Stimme ein leidenschaftliches Lied, ein solches, das Sturm und Aufruhr der heftigsten Gefühle darstellte* (H. Seidel's *Lorelei*). Der weise Erzieher lehrt seinem Jüngling *solche* Wahrheiten, die der Stufe seiner Erfahrung und seines Verstandes entsprechen (Kuno Fischer). Die Krankheit, welche eben vorwiegend eine *solche* des Willens gewesen war und nicht des Körpers (Frenssen's *Die Sandgräfin*, chap. viii). Bislang war es mir noch nie in den Sinn gekommen, daß mein Vater sich vielleicht mit noch anderen entscheidenderen Gedanken trug als nur mit *solchen* der Sorge und des Kummer's (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxii). Ebenso wichtig, wie ältere Nachweise für Tollwut sind mir natürlich *solche* für tollwütig (Stosch in *Zeitschrift für deutsche Wortforschung*, I. Band, p. 374). *Solch* differs here from the determinatives *der*, *derjenige*, and *ein*, in that it refers not to individuals as do they, but to a kind or kinds. It is often, however, used where we would expect *der*, *derjenige*, or *ein*; see 3, below.

a. Accented *ein* is often used here like *solch*: *Es war eine (= eine solche) Nacht, in welcher man nicht gern einen Hund hinausjagt. Das Gengl ist eine, die einen Mann glücklich machen kann* (Voss's *Psyche*, VIII).

3. *Solch* is also often used instead of a personal pronoun, the numeral *ein*, the indefinite *welch*, and *der* or *derjenige* before a gen. or prepositional phrase, in all of which uses it is condemned quite generally by grammarians: *Nunmehr fuhr der Kaiser bei dem Zelt an, betrat solches (= es) und . . .* (Goethe). *Ein Haufe Franc tireurs überfiel die Brücke und sprengte solche (= sie) in die Luft* (*Kölnische Zeitung*). *Unter den zahlreichen Telegrammen befindet sich auch ein solches (= eines) aus New-York (ib.)*. *Bei alledem verbrauchte er aber Geld, ohne zunächst solches (= welches) einzunehmen* (R. Huch's *Schlaraffis*, p. 140). *Dabei beschränkten sich die Türken über Bevorzugung der Christen, die Serben über solche (= die) der Türken*. Grammarians have written a good deal upon the false use of *solch*, but their censure is often indiscriminate. In very many instances the use of *solch* is not incorrect as in the preceding examples, but manifests a keen sense for a fine shade of meaning, the *solch* referring not to some particular individual as in case of *er*, *sie*, *es*, *ein*, *der*, *derjenige*, but rather to an object or objects of some particular kind, often described by the modifying element of the compound in case of a compound antecedent, or by a modifying word following or preceding a simple antecedent: *Ich durfte den armen Studenten doch nicht für einen schwächlichen Kursus ihre letzten Zwanzigmarkstücke aus der Tasche ziehen, wenn sie überhaupt noch solche besaßen* (H. Hoffmann). *Ich danke Ihnen sehr dafür, daß Sie so gütig waren, dem Herzog in meinem Namen ein Exemplar der Horen zu überreichen. Es folgt solches [= dafür ein anderes Exemplar der Horen] hier zurück*

(Schiller an Goethe, I. 105). Er erwartete von ihr unbedingt den ersten Brief und dieser Brief kam nicht, denn sie erwartete einen solchen von ihm (Ompteda's *Frieden*, chap. xii). Ich hatte mir . . . eingebildet . . . auf dem Boock säße der Tod in einem schwarzen, flatternden Mantel, auf seinem klappernden Schädel einen blanken niedrigen Hut, wie ich solche an unseren Droschkenkutschern zu sehen gewohnt war (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxvi). Solch often refers similarly to a simple noun, where in English we use the word *mere* before the repeated noun: Er meinte, sie wäre selbstsüchtig, sie gönne ihm das Vergnügen (of studying Spanish dialects in Spain) nicht, das ihm mehr als ein solches (*mere pleasure*) war (Ompteda's *Frieden*, chap. xii). Solch also as a determinative refers to a simple noun; see 2, above.

132. I. A. Dersel'be, diesel'be, dasel'be *the same* are inflected like derjenige; see 130. I.

a. If contraction with a preceding preposition takes place the parts are separated: am selben, zur selben, &c.

b. Sometimes the article is dropped and selb is inflected strong: um selbe Zeit (Schiller). Ich nehme meinen Kindern alle Bücher ab, sobald sie selbe nicht mehr brauchen, und lege sie in Verwahrung (Rosegger).

c. Lengthened forms both with and without the article were common earlier in the period: derselbige, selbiger. With the article the form is weak, without it strong. The lengthened forms are little used to-day in plain prose, but still occur not infrequently in poetic language or in antique or solemn style. It is sometimes used as an emphatic form of derselbe: Auch wenn man zweimal daselbe tut, ist es gleichfalls nicht mehr daselbige (Raabe's *Alte Nester*, I. chap. x).

d. In S.G. dialects derselbe or selbiger have developed various forms, as dersall, dersell, seller; deseb, seb. These forms usually have demonstrative force = der or jener; see B. a. Note, below. These dialects use der nämliche instead of the literary derselbe.

e. The form dieser selbe is occasionally found, usually with a slight shade of difference, in that it, as the English *this same* or *this very same*, has more distinctly demonstrative force and conveys more emphasis: Diese pflügliche Frage setzte das Mädchen kaum in Erstaunen, das sich heute und gestern mit nichts anderem als nur mit diesem selben Gegenstande beschäftigt hatte (C. F. Meyer).

f. The form jener selbe *that same* is occasionally found: In jenem selben Jahre noch war es, wo usw. It was in that very same year that, &c.

B. Derselbe has a wider range of meanings than the English *the same* as used in ordinary prose. Besides its primary meaning it is also used in the following derived meanings:

a. Derselbe is often used instead of a personal pronoun. See 141. 2, 3, 4, 5. B. b, 6, 7. This use developed out of its employment as a demonstrative, which was common in early N.H.G. See Note.

Note. The demonstrative idea and that of identity approach each other at times very closely. In reply to the question Sind Sie nicht Herr Waldfried, der Sohn des Bezirksförsters? the answer may be: Ich bin derselbe, or Der bin ich. From such or similar cases derselbe assumed in early N.H.G. pronounced demonstrative or determinative force: Weh aber dem Menschen | durch welchen des menschen Sen verurtheilt wird | Es were dem selben Menschen besser | das er nie gebern were (Mark xiv. 21). Wenn du in einem ungewissen und zweifelhaften Werke, da du zweierlei für dir hast, begriffen, so erwähle (erwähle) denselben Teil, welcher am leichtesten zu thun ist (Olearius, *Rosenthal*). Also used substantively: vnd wenn du seinen Mund aufstust | wirstu einen Stater finden | Den selbigen nim vnd gib ju für mich und dich (Matt. xvii. 27). As can be seen in the first two sentences of this Note, both der and derselbe may have the force of emphatic personal pronouns. Both of them often lose their original force and are then used merely to replace personal pronouns, as described

in 141. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. B. *b*, 6, 7. The older use of *derselbe* as a demonstrative or determinative pure and simple has in a large measure disappeared in the literary language of our time, surviving only in dialect (see A. *d*, above). Its use, however, instead of the personal pronouns has increased. See 141. 8.

b. *Derselbe* is used in connection with *allerhöchst*, *höchst*, *hoch* in addressing an emperor, king, and other potentates, and also legislative bodies, to replace the title *Er. Kaiserliche Majestät*, *Hoher Reichstag*, &c., or the usual *Sie* employed in common intercourse. The exact form depends upon the title in question: *Allerhöchstdieselben* (to the emperor; pl. in form, also with pl. verb), *Hochderselbe* (to the Reichstag), &c.

NOTE. Wherever *derselbe* in the cases in *a* and *b* is used to replace a personal pronoun it is more weakly accented than in the primary demonstrative use.

2. *Der nämliche* *the same, the very same, the identical* is inflected like *derselbe*; the parts, however, are separated in writing. The parts of *derselbe* were also written separately early in the period. *Der nämliche* has a much narrower range of meanings than *derselbe*, not being used at all in the groups *a* and *b* under I. B. above. It is sometimes used with the primary meaning of *derselbe*, sometimes with a different shade in the sense of *identical*: *unter demselben Blau, über dem nämlichen Grün* (Schiller's *Spaziergang*, 199). *Wir gehen tausendmal den nämlichen (identical) Weg, aber nimmer wieder denselben* (Raabe's *Alte Nester*, I. chap. x).

133. *Derartig* of *such a nature*, strong or weak, or less frequently *derart* uninflected: *derart* or *derartige* *Beleidigungen* insults of *such a nature*. *Das Verhältniß war nicht derart* or *ein derartiges*, daß es Johanna große Verlegenheit verursacht hätte. *Eine derartige Schnelligkeit* war bisher unerhört. *Derartiges kommt nicht vor* *Such things do not occur*.

Note. The form *derart* or *der Art* should remain uninflected, as it is in fact a fem. noun in the gen. However, it is sometimes felt as a demon. adj. and accordingly inflected: *von derartigen Maßnahmen* (*Volks-Zeitung*).

INTERROGATIVE AND RELATIVE ADJECTIVES.

134. 1. The interrogative adjective *welcher*, *welche*, *welches* *which, what*, used adjectively or substantively, in questions direct or indirect, is always strong when declined, but must be uninflected before *ein*, and may be before an adjective and sometimes before a neut. noun in the nom. and acc. sing.: *welcher Schüler?* *welches edle Herz?* *Welch edlen* or *welches edlen Mannes* *Tat* ist das? *Ich möchte wissen, welcher Mann* das gesagt hat (indirect question). The uninflected form is especially frequent in exclamations: *Welch edler Mann!* *Welch Glück!* *What good fortune!*

2. The parts of the interrogative *was für ein* (*eine, ein*) *what kind*, used in questions direct and indirect, are indeclinable except *ein*, which is declined as the indefinite article when used adjectively, and like strong adjectives when used substantively: *Was für ein Buch* ist das? *Ein deutsches*. *Was für eins?* *What kind of a book* is that? *A German book*. *What kind?* *Ich möchte wissen, was für ein Buch* Sie lesen (indirect question).

The *ein* drops out before a noun denoting an abstract idea or a material and in the plural of the adjective use, but in the substantive use it is replaced throughout by the strong indefinite *welch* *some*: Was für Torheit treibst du da? Was für Wein haben Sie getrunken? Wir haben starken Wein getrunken. Was für welchen? *What kind?* Was für Bücher sind das? Deutsche Bücher. Was für welche? *What kind?* Er hat Freunde, aber was für welche? Mit was für einem Bleistift schreibt er? The *für* in these examples is not a preposition, but a particle introducing the following appositive. For the history of this construction and the relation in meaning between *was für ein* and *welch*, see *d*, below.

The use of *welch* in the substantive relation after names of materials and abstract ideas and in the plural, as found in the above examples, is quite common and general. Some, however, prefer to drop the *welch*: Wünschen Sie Butter? Was für haben Sie? (instead of Was für welche haben Sie?). Ich kaufte zwei Bücher. Was für sind es? (instead of Was für welche sind es?). In popular language *eine* is often heard in the plural instead of *welche*: In dem Park wachsen Bäume. Was für eine?

When the reference is not to a material or an abstract idea, but to a single thing, *was für was* is used in the substantive relation: „Wie heißt er denn?“ „Tiberius.“ „Was für was?“ frug er, und das Kind wiederholte das Wort (Storm's *Bötjer Basch*, p. 27).

a. In the nom. and acc. *für* can be separated from *was*: Was ist das für ein Vogel?

b. Was für ein is often used like *welch* in exclamations: Was für ein schönes Haus!

c. In questions direct and indirect, also in indefinite or general relative clauses, *was für*, often strengthened by the adverb *alles*, is used in the general indefinite sense of *what, what all, what different, all the various* (things, &c.) *which*: Was ist das alles für ein Schreien und Toben? Was sind das nicht alles für Ausflüchte! Was du dir doch alles für Sorgen machst! Sie fing an, herzuzählen, was alles für gute Dinge und schöne Sachen im Hause seien, was sie selbst für Hauptsachen in einer kleinen Truhe besähe.

d. In M.H.G. and early N.H.G. *was* with the partitive genitive was used, where we now find *was für ein*: Was Rugens hast du von mir? (Steinhöwel) In what have you received any benefit from me? Here as elsewhere the genitive passed over into the appositional construction, later the appositive being usually introduced by *für*: In was Land [now was für ein Land] ziehen nicht die Zigeiner [Zigener]? (Fischart, 1590). Ach, was ist's ein Mann! (Goethe's *Egmont*, I, Bürgerhaus). Now, and even in Goethe's time, the usual form is *Was ist's für ein Mann!* The simple appositional construction is, however, still common in colloquial language, especially in exclamations: Ei was Gewissenhaftigkeit! (Ludwig's *Zwischen Himmel und Erde*, XIX). Was ein Gesicht! (M. Dreyer's *Drei*, 3). O was komische Sachen! (id., *In Behandlung*, I). For a fuller history of the construction see 147. 1. E. In such sentences *was für ein* may be replaced by *welch* when it inquires after a particular thing: Welchen Nutzen (what particular benefit) hast du von mir? There is often, however, no difference between *was für ein* and *welch*, but the growing tendency has been to differentiate the meanings of the two expressions, the former expressing an inquiry after a particular kind or sort, the latter an inquiry after a particular thing: Was für ein Pferd ist das? *What kind of a horse is that?* but Welches Pferd wollen Sie reiten? — Den Braunen *Which horse are you going to ride?* — *The bay*. In some dialects *welcher* is not used here at all, *was für ein* still being used for *welcher*: Was für en Mann is des? (dialect of Mainz).

3. The early N.H.G. form *wafer* has been entirely replaced by *was für ein*:

Aus waser (now was für) machst thustu das? (Mark xi. 28). See also 147. I. E for explanation of the form.

135. The relative adj. *welcher, welche, welches* is declined like the interrogative: Er sagte „guten Tag,“ welchen Gruß sie freundlich erwiderte; with noun understood: Die Bevölkerung Rumäniens besteht zu $\frac{1}{2}$ aus Rumänen, einem Mischlingsvolke aus lateinischen und slavischen Bestandteilen, welche letzteren (the latter of which) romanisiert wurden.

a. *Welcher* is usually a pure pronoun with the additional function of a subordinate conjunction, and requires the verb at the end of its clause. Even as real adjectives, as in the preceding examples, enough of the pronominal and conjunctive nature is left to require the verb at the end.

POSSESSIVES.

136. The possessives are *mein my, dein thy, your, sein his, its, ihr her, its, their, unser our, euer your, Ihr your*. These words are used either adjectively or substantively, but with different inflection for each use. For their use see 138.

a. In S.G. dialects other possessives are in use: *enfer = euer your, ihner their, söner their*.

DECLENSION.

137. 1. Used adjectively the possessives are inflected exactly like the indefinite article in the sing. and like the strong adjective in the pl.: *mein Gut, meine Feder, mein Buch, dieser mein Sohn this my son*, pl. *meine Güte, Federn, Bücher*. When a strong pronominal precedes, we not infrequently find weak inflection of the possessive after the analogy of qualifying adjectives: in diesem unseren Phantasiestückchen (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 90). Bei allem seinen großen Ruhm (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Glaubenslos*, chap. iii).

a. In poetry the uninflected form following the noun can still be found: *Steh auf, du Schwester mein* (Uhland). This word-order is also found in the first words of the Lord's Prayer, always when used as a noun: *Vater unser usw. Our Father, &c., das Vaterunser the Lord's Prayer*. Also the form *Guer* (sometimes found in the contracted form *Gw.*, which form is explained by the older spelling *ewer*) is still sometimes uninflected when used in addressing people of high rank or station: *Die Nachrichten aus Paris, welche Guer Excellenz durch das Auswärtige Amt mitgeteilt worden sind, &c.* (General Tresckow to General Roon).

2. A. Used substantively they agree in gender with the noun to which they refer and are inflected like any adjective, and hence have three forms—the *strong, weak*, and in the predicate the *uninflected* form.

a. When standing alone without a preceding modifying word they are, especially in familiar language, inflected like strong adjectives, except in the gen. of the masc. and neut. sing., where they still have the strong form *es* instead of the wk. *en* (see 108): nom. *meiner, meine, meines, &c.* Ist das Ihr Gut oder ist es meiner? Mein Bruder und seiner, unser Haus und Ihres.

b. If preceded by the def. article, which form is now a favorite substitute for the simple possessive (see *a*, above), they are declined

exactly as the wk. adj. : der meine, die meine, das meine ; mein Bruder und der seine, meine Schwester und die seine, mein Buch und das seine.

Often the stem *mein*, *dein*, &c. is lengthened by adding *ig* and then inflected in the same way : der *meinige*, die *meinige*, das *meinige* ; Unser Haus und das Ihrige. These lengthened forms have, perhaps, become more common than the unlengthened ones. The latter, however, are in no wise felt as unusual, and are even favorites in choice prose or poetry : Wenn Ihr Gesetz denn anders lautet als das meine, so kann ich nur dem meinen folgen. Lieber will ich ein gequälter Sünder bleiben als eine Puppe in der Hand meiner Mutter oder in der Ihren (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*).

c. These possessives, with the exception of *ihr her*, *their*, *Ihr your*, which are now usually inflected or replaced by some other construction, may like adjectives remain uninflected in the predicate after the intransitives *sein*, *werden*, *bleiben*, *scheinen*, and sometimes *gehören* (not only colloquially, as often stated, but occasionally even in elevated discourse), and as an objective predicate after *nennen*, *wissen*, *glauben*, *fühlen*, *empfinden*, *machen*, &c., if they express the abstract or general idea of ownership, authorship, but they are inflected strong or weak if it is simply desired to indicate that the thing represented by the predicate is identical with that represented by the subject : Was euer ist, soll euer bleiben What is yours shall remain yours. Der Wagen ist nur halb mein. Das Geld ist sein. So lang das Schwert ich schwinde, | gehört, was ich besitze, Herr, auch dein ! (M. Greif's *Heinrich der Löwe*, 1, 2). Dein g'hört alles da herum (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Glaubenslos*, chap. vii). Der Tag ist unser (Liliencron's *Kriegsnovellen*, battle of Vionville). Mein scheint die Schuld, doch weiß ich sie dein. Der Mensch hat nur sich selber sein zu nennen (P. Heyse). Earlier in the period also *ihr* was used predicatively, but it is also possible to construe this form in early N.H.G. as a gen. of the personal pronoun (see 140. b), and later in the period, where the reference is to one woman, as a dative of the personal pronoun (see 258. 1. A. c) : Selig sind | die da geistlich arm sind | Denn das Himmelreich ist jr (Matt. v. 3). Sagen Sie meinem Fränzchen, daß ich noch immer ihr bin (Goethe to K. Fabricius, June 27, 1770). Ihr bin ich, bildend soll sie mich besigen (id., *Tasso*, 2, 2). Instead of *Ihr* and *ihr* in the predicate we now often find *Ihre* and *ihrer* (see Note 2, below). Perhaps most people would avoid this construction here and use another.

But inflection for the expression of identity : Mein Geschmack ist immer auch der seine (Fulda's *Talisman*, 2, 6). Sein Loos ist uns'res ! (Hebbel's *Nibelungen*, III, IV, 4). Die Wünsche, die sie hegt, sind auch die meinen (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, III, 8). Compare these last examples with Ihr habt mich auserwählt zu Eurem Führer, | mein wurde Euer Wille, Eure Tat (Wildenbruch's *Die Quitzows*, 2).

Note 1. If the subject is *er*, *sie*, *es*, the uninflected form of the possessive is usually employed in the predicate, but if the indefinite *es* (141. g. a), which does not change form for gender and number, is made subject, the inflected substantive forms must be used : Wem gehört der Hut — die Feder — das Buch ? Answer : Er ist mein — sie ist mein — es ist mein ; or es ist meiner (, der meinige, or der meine) — meine (, die meinige, or die meine) — meines (, das meinige, or das meine), and in the pl. : es (speaking of hats, pens,

books) sind meine (, die meinigen, or die meinen). The uninflected form emphasizes the idea of possession, and the inflected form that of identity. Even if the subject is *er*, *sie*, or *es*, the inflected form must be used if the idea of identity is prominent: *Dein Weg ist frumm, er ist der meine nicht* (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 2, 7). Also here the uninflected form emphasizes the idea of possession and the inflected form that of identity.

Note 2. In familiar conversation still, especially in the Midland and North, and also in the classics, there is an uninflected form in the predicate which in case of *ihr her*, *ihr their*, *Ihr your* ends in *e*, as *ihre*, *Ihre*, which is a survival of the M.H.G. form *ire*, employed in the Midland for the usual M.H.G. *ir*, the fem. gen. sing. and the gen. pl. of the personal pronoun *si* (*ſie*): *Ich fürchte fast, daß dieses Frauenzimmer niemals Ihre wird* (Schiller). *Das [das Kreuzſir] ist nun Ihre* (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, IV. 26). *Trud und Gerdi schritten langsam die lange Straße hinunter, bis an das Windesche Haus, das nun ihre war* (id., *Grete Minde*, chap. vii). *Wir denka halt alle, das Mädchen wär Ihre* (Hauptmann's *Fuhrmann Henschel*, Act 2). This is a survival of older periods when there was no possessive adjective for the fem. 3rd person and for the 3rd pers. pl., although there were elsewhere regular adjective possessive forms. The possessive idea was in these places, where special forms were lacking, expressed by the gen. of the personal pronoun. The surviving pronominal forms *ihre*, *Ihre* were, however, after the formation of a possessive adjective for the 3rd pers. fem. and 3rd pers. pl., construed as a weak predicate adjective, and hence similar forms were sometimes made from the other possessives: *Sie doch wenigstens wissen, daß das, was meine ist, auch Ihre ist* (Lessing).

Instead of the colloquial *ihre* we find in choice language the form *ihrer*, the modern genitive of the personal pronoun *ſie*: *Wir selbst, als Schwestern deiner Fürstin gleich, | gehorchen ihr, weil ihrer ward das Reich* (Grillparzer's *Libussa*, 3). *Denn ihrer* (i. e. *der Leidenschaft*) *ist ja das Reich und die Herrlichkeit der Welt* (Raabe's *Schüdderump*, chap. xii). *Ihrer ist die Schuld, — ganz allein ihrer!* (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, X).

B. These possessives can also be used as real substantives without antecedent, in which case they are written with capitals, with inflection as follows:

a. Referring to one's relatives, friends, party associates, and also, in neut. form, to one's property or duty, they are inflected weak: *Er lebt nur für die Seinigen* He only lives for his family. *Die Meinigen werden erfreut sein, die Ihrigen zu begrüßen* My folks will be glad to greet yours. *Die — Meinigen?* *Ich habe keine Meinen* (Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, 3, 1). *Die drei verbündeten Herrscher hielten selbst auf einer Anhöhe in der Nähe und sahen die übermenschlichen Anstrengungen der Ihrigen.* In letters: *Ganz der Ihrige, die Deine.* *Meine Schwester hat all das Ihrige verloren* My sister has lost all her property. *Ich habe das Meinige getan* I have done my duty.

Note. Provincially these substantives may be heard strong: *Meiner* my husband, my master, *Meine* my wife, my mistress. *Die hat eine Ruſin, der Ihrer* (whose husband) *trifft nur alle vier Wochen einmal nach Haus* (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Rittmeister Brand*, V).

b. The short forms *Mein*, *Dein*, &c. are uninflected neut. substantives when used in the abstract or general sense of *possession*, *right of possession*: *Streit um Mein und Dein* contention as to what is mine and yours. *Dein und Mein bringt alles Unglück herein* Contention as to the right of possession of property brings about a good deal of misfortune.

NOTE. From the above it will be seen that aside from the special case in B. *b*, above, there are *four* substantive forms for the predicate, but only three for the subject, while there is only *one* form for the adj. use: *Das Buch ist mein, meines, das meine, or das meinige* (predicate). *Ihr* (adj.) *Buch ist neuer als meines, das meine, or das meinige* (subject).

USE.

138. The following points as to the use of possessives may be of practical value :

1. As there are three forms corresponding to the three forms for the second person of the personal pronoun, care must be exercised as to their proper use. *Dein your, thy* is the form of the possessive, corresponding to the familiar form *du* (140. a) : *Du wirst das Deine empfangen* You will get what is due you. *Ich habe mein Buch verzessen* ; *leihe (du) mir deines*. The form of the possessive corresponding to *Sie*, the polite form of address, is *Ihr* : *Wo haben Sie Ihren Überrock gekauft?* The form of the possessive corresponding to *ihr*, the familiar address to two or more, is *euer* : *Ich rate euch, besümmert ihr euch mit euren Angehörigen nicht um meine, sondern um eure Angelegenheiten*. Thus in familiar language *dein* or *euer* is used according as the address is to one or more persons, but each must agree in gender, number, and case with the following noun which it limits : *dein Buch your* (speaking to *one* friend) book, pl. *deine Bücher your* books ; *euer Buch your* (speaking to several friends who own one book) book, pl. *eure Bücher your* books.

All pronouns and their corresponding possessives are written with capitals when employed in direct address in letters (not usually, however, elsewhere except in case of the polite form of address) : *Lieber Bruder!* *Ich habe seit Deinem letzten Hiersein keine Nachricht von Dir erhalten*. The polite form of address *Sie* (with reference to one or more) and the corresponding possessive *Ihr* are always written with a capital, and usually also the other forms of conventional address explained in 140. a. *Note*, namely *Er*, *Sie* (fem. sing.), *Ihr* (with reference to one or more) along with their corresponding possessives *sein*, *Ihr*, *euer*. Usage, however, fluctuates here at several points, some using capitals more freely, others more sparingly.

a. In addressing potentates, dignitaries, kings, &c., the usual possessive is *euer*, although the corresponding personal pronoun is no longer *Ihr* : *Mein Herz weißagt, Ew. (= Euer) Durchlaucht werden die Erhaltung meines Lebens, das ganz Ihnen gehört, nicht verschmähen und mich auch in der Ferne als Ihren unveräußerten Untertanen betrachten wollen* (Voss to the Duke of Oldenburg, May 20, 1802). Notice here, however, that *Euer* is used only immediately before the title, and is elsewhere replaced by *Ihr*. *Ihr* and *Ihro* (uninflected) were earlier in the period also used here like *Euer*. See 140. a. *Note*.

2. There are two pronominals for the third person. Referring either to a masc. or neut. noun, *sein* is used and hence must be translated by *his, one's, or its* : *Er hat sein Schläfchen gemacht* He has taken his nap. *Man kennt nicht immer seine wahren Freunde* One does not always know one's true friends. *Jedes Land hat seine Vorzüge* Every land has its advantages. When the reference is to a neut. collective noun, the German possessive is *sein*, which must in some cases be translated by *their* : *Das Volk bestand auf seine Rechte* The people insisted upon their rights. The form *ihr* may mean in English *her, its, their*. If it refers to a female, it is to be translated by *her* : *Marie schreibt ihren Aufsatz* Mary is writing her essay. If it refers to a thing of fem. gender, it is translated by *it* : *Die Sache hat*

ihre gute Seite The affair has its bright side. If it refers to more than one, it is translated by *their*: Die Mädchen schreiben ihre Aufsätze The girls are writing their essays.

a. The adverbial expression *seinerzeit* is used with reference to a word in the first, second, or third person, sing. or pl., *mas.*, *fem.*, or *neut.*, with the meaning *in our (your, his, her, its) day or time, once upon a proper occasion* in connection with a past tense, and *in due time or season* in connection with a reference to a future time: Wir waren *seinerzeit* auch rüstige Bergsteiger We were also in our time (lit. in its time, in the time for it) sturdy mountain climbers. Diese Kirche galt *seinerzeit* (in its day) für die schönste der Stadt. Seine Abhandlung über *Cynips scutellaris*, die Gallapfelswespe, machte *seinerzeit* (at the time of publication) in den betreffenden Kreisen Aufsehen (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 10). Meine Frau sagte *seinerzeit* (once upon a proper occasion): „Guter Gott, wie dankbar können wir doch sein, daß du nicht so warst wie die beiden anderen von euch“ (ib.). Ich werde *seinerzeit* (in due season) auf die Sache zurückkommen. Das wirst du *seinerzeit* (in due time) erfahren. Some prefer here to select the possessive according to the gender, person, and number of the word to which it refers: Eine Geschichte des deutschen Volkes, welche an Stelle der ihrer Zeit tüchtigen . . . Geschichte der Deutschen von Büßer treten soll (*Augsb. Allg.*). This is especially the case to bring out a contrast: Auch Gärten, die an einander grenzten . . . gab es da noch zu unserer Zeit, als die Stadt noch nicht das „erste Hunderttausend“ überschritten hatte (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 8).

b. The possessives, like the personal pronouns, may be used reflexively referring to the subject of the sentence, and when the subject is pl. may also be used reciprocally: Ich fördere meine, du fördest deine, er fördert seine, sie fördert ihre Interessen I further my, you further your, he furthers his, she furthers her interests. Sie fördern ihre Interessen They further their own interests, or it may mean their mutual interests.

In case of the third person of the reflexive possessive and the reciprocal possessive throughout, the reference cannot always be made clear by the use of the simple pronominal. It may not be clear whether *sein his* and *ihr her* refer to the subject or to another party, and whether *unser our*, *euer, Ihr your*, *ihr their*, are to be considered as personal, reflexive, or reciprocal pronominals, hence it is often necessary to add *eigen own* to the reflexive and *gegenseitig mutual* to the reciprocal possessive: Er fördert seine eignen Interessen. Sie fördern ihre gegenseitigen Interessen.

Note. In careless and in popular language *sein* is sometimes found as a reflexive possessive, referring indifferently to a *fem.*, *masc.*, or pl. noun instead of the usual *sein* for the *masc.*, *ihr* for the *fem.* and pl.: Die Untersuchung wider Conzeanos Mörder geht seinen regelmäßigen Gang (*Volkszeitung*, 23. 39). Alle diese tendenziösen Stellen mußten seine fulminante Wirkung üben (ib., 24. 56).

c. In the classical period we often find a possessive of the third person in conjunction with the *gen.* or *dat.* of a pronoun or noun, where the literary language to-day requires the simple *gen.* of the pronoun or noun, or chooses some other construction: Da, nimm meinen Ring, verwahre ihn und gib mir des Majors seinen (for gib mir den des Majors) dafür (Lessing's *Minna*, 4, 5). Ihr arket mehr nach Eures Vaters Geist, | als nach der Mutter ihrem (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 3, 2). Gegen dem seine Weisheit (Lessing). This construction is still common in popular and colloquial language, the dative, however, being now the favorite: Wem sein Gut ist das? for the literary form Wessen Gut ist das? Es ist dem Wilhelm seiner for Er gehört dem Wilhelm. Dem sein Gut, der ihr Kind, &c. Da schlägt Fritz' seine Pendule elf Uhr (von Moltke in a letter). Du bist meine Frau und nicht der Diplomaten ihre (Bismarck's *Briefe an seine Braut und Gattin*, 14. Mai 1851). Du hast eine gute Stirn, ganz wie dem Väterchen seine (Schulze-Smidt's *Denk' ich an Deutschland in der Nacht*, 11).

d. The demon. genitives *dessen his*, *deren her*, *their*, are much used instead of the declined forms of *sein* and *ihr* to avoid ambiguity, *dessen*, *deren* referring

to an oblique case, and sein, ihr to the subject : Sie sprach viel von ihrer Schwester und erzählte viel von deren Schicksalen She spoke much of her sister and related a good deal of her (i.e. the sister's) experiences. But if the reference is to her own experiences, it should read: von ihren Schicksalen. Der Graf hat diesem Manne und dessen Sohne alles anvertraut The count has entrusted all to this man and his (the latter's) son. But if the reference is to the count's own son, it must read : seinem Sohne. Also derselbe can be used instead of dessen, deren in such cases : Der Graf hat diesem Manne und dem Sohne desselben alles anvertraut.

Deffen, deren are also used in a following independent proposition instead of the possessive when the reference is to a nom. or an oblique case in a preceding independent or subordinate proposition : Ablativ und Lokativ sind am frühesten untergegangen, schon in urgermanischer Zeit, und die übrig gebliebenen Kasus mußten deren frühere Aufgaben mit vertreten (Behaghel's *Die deutsche Sprache*, p. 316, 2nd ed.). Zuletzt trat Heinrich in diesem trauernden Hause fast ganz in die Stelle, die Rudolf eingenommen hatte. Er wohnte in dessen Stube, er benutzte dessen Bücher (Raabe).

Deffen and deren are also used elsewhere instead of sein to avoid ambiguity : die Gräfin, ihre Verwalterin und deren (i. e. *the latter's*) Tochter.

Deffen and deren are often used of persons of high rank or position even where no ambiguity would arise by the use of sein, ihr : der König und dessen Gemahlin.

e. Instead of the possessive the demonstrative der or derselbe is much used if the reference is to things : Sie legte die Hand auf den Stein und empfand dessen Wärme, or die Wärme desselben rather than seine Wärme. Meine Absichten will ich verteidigen, nicht deren künstlerische Ausführung (Fulda's *Die Kameraden*, Vorwort).

f. Earlier in the period Ihr or the uninflected Ihr was used instead of Sein His, when the reference was to a person with a high title, as it was thought proper to use a possessive which would accord with the fem. title or the plural form of the verb : Ich bin kein Rebell, habe gegen Ihrer Kaiserliche Majestät nichts verbrochen (Goethe's *Götz*, 4, 2). We now say here Seine Majestät, with reference to the queen or empress Ihre Majestät. With reference to a *preceding* fem., ihr is still used ; see 263. I. 3.

3. The possessive is often in German replaced by the article in connection with the dative of a personal pronoun. For examples of this usage see 258. 3. B. a. The simple article without the personal pronoun is often employed instead of a possessive, provided no ambiguity could arise thereby : Sie hatte die Blumen in der Hand *She had the flowers in her hand.*

Also dessen, deren, and derselben may under certain circumstances replace the possessive, as explained in 2. d and e, above.

On the other hand, in popular and colloquial language the possessive is a favorite and is often used even where it does not seem necessary : Seine siebenzig Jahre hat er bald gut auf dem Rücken (Raabe's *Meister Autor*, chap. xviii). Der Ring ist seine 100 Mark wert. This unnecessary use of the possessive is especially frequent in the popular constructions described in 2. c, above, and in 258. 3. B. a.

4. Notice the difference of idiom in the two languages in the following expressions : ein Verwandter von Ihnen *a relative of yours*, ein Freund von mir *a friend of mine*. Die Sperlinge sind noch mein Tod (H. Seidel's *Eine Sperlingsgeschichte*) *The sparrows will be the death of me yet.*

139. Indefinite numerals. The indefinites, which are used adjectively or substantively, may be divided into three groups :

1. The following contain the idea of number :

a. allerhand all kinds of, every kind of, uninflected: allerhand gute Weine, mit allerhand guten Weinen, allerhand guter Wein, mit allerhand Glitter geschmückt, allerhand Unverständliches. Substantively: einem allerhand mitteilen. See 161. 4.

Note. This form is in fact a loose compound consisting of the noun *hand* *kind* in the gen. pl. and its modifying adjective, which in M.H.G. were written apart: aller hande of all kinds.

b. allerlei all kinds of, every kind of, every kind of a, uninflected: allerlei gute Weine, mit allerlei guten Weinen, allerlei guter Wein, allerlei Unverständliches. Sie führen in allerlei Gefährt (Ilse Frapan's *Mamsell Biene*). Substantively: Sie sprechen von allerlei'. See also 126. 1. a. For accent see 47. 2. A. a.

c. ander: other, str. and wk.: ein and(e)rer Mann; der and(e)re Mann; and(e)re Männer; ein and(e)rer another (man); eine and(e)re Frau; ein and(e)res Buch; am anderen (see 122. 1, '2nd') Tage the next day.

d. beide: both, str. and wk.: beide Hände, or die beiden Hände, die (meine, diese, jene) beiden Knaben both of the (my, these, those) boys. The neut. sing. is used collectively, embracing two nouns or the ideas contained in two verbs: beides, Brief und Paket both letter and package. Er irrte sich in beidem He was mistaken in both points. Das beides ist richtig Both points are correct. Wir müssen hüßen und wir können hüßen; diese Frau hat es beides getan (Ompfeda's *Frieden*, chap. xiii). Much used in idiomatic combinations: wir beide, or less commonly beide wir both of us, diese beiden Knaben more common than diese Knaben beide, or beide diese Knaben, the latter forms, however, being more emphatic; keiner von beiden neither of them, alle beide (or in popular language zwei beide, or alle zwei beide) both of them, welche beide both of which.

Note 1. Following pronouns, the inflection of *beide* is strong except after *wir* and *ihr*, where after the manner of qualifying adjectives we also find the weak inflection, and even more frequently so after *ihr*: wir beide (Raabe), wir beiden verlorenen (M. Halbe), ihr beide (Grillparzer's *König Ottokar*, 1), ihr beiden Narren (Raabe), ihr beiden (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, 3), dies beides both of these, das beides both of those, alles beides both. Sein Tod ist ein schwerer Schlag für die Gemahlin und für die Königin, die beide (both of whom) niedergeschmettert sind.

Note 2. *Beide* and *alle* have a position in the sentence differing sometimes from English: (1) They usually follow pronouns, standing in the appositional construction, when *all* are embraced in the statement: Ich kann nicht Ihnen allen helfen I cannot help all of you (or as in German *you all*). Sie schickten mir Handschuhe, welche mir alle zu groß sind You sent me gloves all of which are too large for me. For examples of the position of *beide* see examples in *Note 1* above. When a partitive idea is to be expressed, they usually stand in the dat. after *von*: Einer von beiden kommt One of the two will come. (2) They may for emphasis follow a noun: Ich sah die Eltern beide I saw both of the parents. Er wandte sich von seinen Freunden allen ab. (3) When they are modifiers of the subject they may for emphasis stand after the verb: Die Schuldigen verstummten alle Every one of the guilty ones became silent. Deine Eltern sind beide wohl Both of your parents are well, or as in German *Your parents are both well*. (4) For especial emphasis they may, when they are modifiers of the subject, also stand first in the sentence followed by the verb and later by the subject: Alle wollen sie des Kaisers Antlitz sehen (Wildenbruch's *Kaiser Heinrich*, 2, 2). Beide standen wir am Fenster. (5) *Beide* differing from *alle* usually follows a gen., a possessive, or other pronominal, less frequently does it precede: all seines Vaters Gut and alle meine Bücher, but meines Vaters beide Güter and mit meinen beiden Augen, or sometimes earlier in the period mit beiden meinen Augen. But *beide* precedes the

possessive when it is itself preceded by the article: *Meinert hatte überrascht die Hand seines Besuchers, die er bis dahin in den beiden feinen gehalten, losgelassen* (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, 1). The last examples show how *beide* in a greater degree than *alle* is becoming more like attributive adjectives, in that it now usually follows the article and the pronominals. They were both originally predicate appositives, which accounts for their peculiar position in the sentence.

e. ein one, any, some, often in connection with the adverb *irgend*, which gives the generalizing force in the sense of *any, some, any at all*, inflected like the indefinite article when used adjectively, and like a strong adjective when used substantively: *zu irgend einer Zeit* at any time whatever. *Wenn ich nur irgend ein Mittel dagegen wüßte!* If I only knew some remedy for it! Substantively: *irgend einer* any one; *jenes Buch oder irgend eines*.

The wanting plural of *irgend ein* is supplied by *irgend welche* or simple *welche* in declarative sentences, and in questions either by *irgend welche* or *irgend alone*: *Irgend eine Person hat*, or in the plural *irgend welche Personen haben es ihm verraten*. *Die Fischlein waren . . . so schön, wie er noch nie welche gesehen hatte* (R. Huch's *Schlaraffis*, p. 94). *Haben irgend welche Personen* or *irgend Personen* außer Ihnen darum gewußt? In the substantive relation *welche* cannot be dropped here.

The wanting plural of *ein* in the meaning *several, a few* is supplied by *welch=* (used as a rule only substantively) or *einige* (used adjectively): *Hast du ein paar Pfennige?* *Ich habe welche*, but usually *Er ist schon einige Jahre tot*. In popular and colloquial language *welch* is often used here adjectively: *Welche* (in choice language *einige*) *Menschen sind nicht zufrieden*. Other forms than *welche* and *einige* occur in dialect, such as *ere* (a partitive gen. = *ihrer*), *eine*: *Hast du ein paar Pfennige?* *Ich habe ere* or *eine*. With reference to materials *ein* is replaced in the singular by *welch=* in the substantive and by *etwas* in the attributive relation: *Wenn Sie Geld haben, so geben Sie mir welches*. *Geben Sie mir etwas Geld*. The indefinite *welch=* is well supported by good usage here, but a number of grammarians are unfriendly to it, and recommend its omission: *Ich brauche Papier, hast du?*—*Ja, da ist; nimm dir, &c.*

So great a favorite is *welch=* that it is often used in the singular where *ein* might be used: *Kann ich und will ich früher abreisen, so kann ich ja am Donnerstag noch irgend welche mir triftig scheinende Ausrede nach Leipzig senden* (Bismarck to his wife, Oct. 21, 1850). *Sie sind am allermächtigsten ohne irgend welchen Rang* (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. x).

f. jed= every, each, any, strong (see 108), or if preceded by the indefinite article mixed, used adjectively or substantively. The indefinite article *must* precede the genitive in the substantive relation. Exs.: *ein jeder rechtschaffene Bürger* (Goethe's *Egmont*, 2), or *jeder rechtschaffene Bürger*; *das Gefühl eines jeden*, but *das Gefühl jedes* or *eines jeden* edlen Menschen. *Ein jeder ist seines Glückes Schmied*. *Jede Feder ist gut genug* Any pen will do. *Jeder* (anybody) *kann Ihnen sagen, wo ich wohne*.

Earlier in the period *jed=* could be used in the plural with the force of *alle*: *jede andern Mittel* (Goethe's *Egmont*, 1, *Palast der Regentin*), *jede zehn Schritte* (Heine).

Earlier in the period *jedwed=*, *jedweder=*, and *jeglich=*, all with the inflection and meaning of *jed=*, were frequently used, and with the exception of *jedweder=* still occur in choice language, especially in a solemn or dignified style: *jedwede Art von Sünde* (Ranke), *ein jeglicher wunderliche Vogel* (Raabe's *Unseres Herrgotts Kanzlei*, chap. v).

Note. Instead of *ein jeder* we find *jed= ein=* in N.G. dialect, just as in English: *Damit friegt man jeden einen mürbe* (M. Dreyer's *In Behandlung*, 2).

g. manch *many a*, *many*, *a number of*, strong and weak, but uninflected before *ein*, also often before an adjective: *mancher Mann*, *manche Frau*, *manches Kind*, *mancher many a man*. *Ich habe Ihnen so manches zu sagen* I have a number of things to tell you. *Manche gute Leute* a number of good people; *die manchen Stunden*, *die ich darauf verwendet habe*. But *manch ein starker Mann*, or *manch starker Mann*, or more commonly *mancher starke Mann*. It is rather uncommon in general to place the indefinite article before *manch=*, although in some sections, as in the S.W., it occurs occasionally: *Ein mancher blieb hassen* (Scheffel's *Ekkehard*, 13).

Manch differs from *viel* in that it denotes only number, while the latter denotes also quantity: *viel* (not *manch*) *Geld*. Both *viel* and *manch* denote number in the plural. The former denotes a large number and stands in contrast to *wenige few*, while *manche* indicates an indefinite number larger than *einige several*. *Manch* differs from *viel* also in having individualizing force, which explains its frequent use in the singular, just as *many a* in English. On account of its individualizing force, it cannot be used in questions asking after the number: *Wie viele* (not *manche*) *waren da?*

h. mehrer= (117. I. b) *several*, strong and weak: *mehrere wichtige Dinge*, *mehreres wichtige several important things*. *Wie sollte man die mehrern Wagen fortbringen?* (Goethe). A little earlier in the period the form *mehr* was not infrequent: *mit mehrern Damen* (Bismarck to his betrothed, Feb. 1, 1847).

i. ein paar a few, several, uninflected (see 121. I. A. a): *mit ein paar Worten*. A demonstrative may precede *paar*: *Aber diese paar archaischen Abweichungen sind kaum von Belang* (Wackernagel's *Altindische Grammatik*, I. p. xlv). The demonstrative is always inflected. When *Paar* is written with a capital and *ein* is inflected, the expression takes again its original meaning, i. e. *a pair*: *mit einem Paar Kanarienvögel*. See also 253. I. I. g. *Note* 1.

2. The following contain the idea of *quantity*:

a. bißchen (S.G. *bißel*) *little, little bit*, more confined to the style of every day than *ein wenig*, and, moreover, implying a smaller amount. It is uninflected, but may be preceded by an inflected article, demon., or possessive, which, however, does not agree in gender with the noun following *bißchen*, but is neut., agreeing with *bißchen* itself, thus distinctively indicating its original substantive nature: *Die Johanniswürmchen sind um des bißchen Glanzes willen noch keine Sterne* Glow-worms are not by any means stars because of the little light they shed. *Darüber hinaus möchte ich fürs erste allerdings den verbleibenden Rest meines bißchen Kapitals nicht angreifen* (Boy-Ed).

Mit ihrem bißchen Kraft. Used substantively: Die ganze Welt kommt mir mit einem Mal so dumm und unsinnig vor, daß auf das bißchen, was ich von der Sorte dazu gebe, wirklich nichts ankommt (Raabe). Nicht ein bißchen mehr! Don't take the least bit more! Usually the indef. art. before bißchen remains uninflected after the analogy of ein wenig, ein paar: mit ein bißchen Verstand. The uninflected wenig can only be used after ein, and hence could not stand in the first four examples above.

Note. Often bißchen is used adverbially: Warten Sie ein klein bißchen. Er ist nicht ein bißchen eitel He is not a bit (or not in the least) vain.

b. etwas *some*, uninflected: etwas Wein, etwas Geld. It is often used adverbially: etwas sauer somewhat sour.

Note. In early N.H.G. etwas was felt as a neut. substantive and could have a following gen. depending upon it: etwas Trosts (Luther). Later the gen. passed over into the appositional construction: etwas Trost. To-day etwas can in such cases be regarded as an uninflected adj. with the same general meaning as the inflected adj. einig, with this modification, that etwas is now in general used with singular nouns for an indefinite amount, mass, while einig may be used for an indefinite amount, but is more particularly used with pl. nouns or the singular of adjective-substantives for an indefinite number: etwas Butter, etwas Ehre, etwas Mut, einiges Geld, einige Bücher, einiges Interessante several interesting things. However, before abstract nouns in the sing., einig is often used instead of etwas: einige Zeit, einige Erfahrung, nach einigem Stolpern über allerhand Unebenheiten (Raabe's *Finkenrode*, chap. ii). In the substantive relation etwas is replaced by welcher; see 1. e, above. For etwas as a real substantive (with dependent noun) see 145. f.

c. ganz *all, whole, entire*, strong and weak, but may also be uninflected before names of countries and places which have no art. before them, when used in a figurative or inexact sense: ein ganzer Apfel a whole apple, der ganze Apfel, ein ganzer Mann a man every inch of him; das ganze Deutschland *the whole of Germany, Germany one and undivided*, but Ganz Deutschland lag in Schmach und Schmerz All Germany lay in disgrace and grief. Ich durchreiste ganz Deutschland. But the ending cannot be dropped in case of those countries which always take the art.: die ganze Schweiz *all Switzerland*, not ganz Schweiz. It is much used in idiomatic expressions: im ganzen on the whole, im ganzen einkaufen to buy by wholesale, im ganzen und großen überschlagen to make a rough estimate, &c.

Ganz is often used in the plural, but it never denotes number, indicating also there entirety, i. e. the completeness of each whole: see 3. d. *Note*, below, toward end.

Note 1. The usual adverbial form is ganz quite, entirely, very: ganz gut. Formerly gänzlich was the usual adverbial form and is still sometimes used. This form is also used adjectively, only, however, before abstract nouns denoting an activity or a quality, where the original adverbial nature of the form is largely preserved (see 245. II. 1. 2. A. f): gänzliche Befreiung, gänzliche Verschiedenheit.

Note 2. Ganz is also used as a neut. noun, but with its original adj. declension: Zwei Halbe (halves) sind ein Ganzes (a whole). Vier Halbe sind zwei Ganze, or sind zwei Ganzen gleich (equal to). Ein harmonisch geordnetes Ganze or Ganzes (see 111. 4. a), der dritte Teil eines Halben. Also masc. referring to Schoppen: einen Ganzen, einen Halben trinken to drink a whole, a half-measure (of beer or wine).

d. halb *half*, strong and wk., and like ganz remains uninflected before names of countries and places which have no article before them, when used figuratively or in an inexact sense: ein halber

Apfel half of an apple, der halbe Apfel, die halbe Stadt, ein halber Mann, das halbe Paris half of Paris, das halbe Paris or more commonly halb Paris half of the people of Paris, durch halb Paris. Die französische Revolution erschütterte halb Europa. But always die halbe Schweiz.

Note 1. It is uninflected in the form ein halb used as a fraction, also in the form halb when used adverbially, and in a few expressions substantively. Zehn mit ein halb multipliziert gibt fünf. Die Stunde ist schon halb um The hour is already half up. Die Uhr schlägt die halbe Stunde, or schlägt halb. Es ist halb neun (o'clock). Formerly and still in popular language inflected in the predicate: Ich bin halber im Traum; see 111. 8.

Note 2. Halb is also used as a neut. or masc. noun, but with its original adj. declension; see *Note 2*, under *c*.

e. ein wenig a little, uninflected; see 2. *a*, above.

Note. Ein wenig is much used adverbially: Sie haben die Sache ein wenig übereilt. You have hurried the matter a little too much.

3. The following contain the idea of *quantity* or *number*, according as the noun is in the sing. or pl.:

a. aller, alle, alles all, usually strong when inflected, but may remain uninflected before an article or pronominal, usually with the form all, but often in popular language alle: alle Freude all the joy, alles Gute all that is good, all or alle der Wein, all or alle des Weins, &c.; all der Wein *all the wine* (quantity), but alle Schüler all the pupils (number); alles in allem *all in all*, but alle, Gute und Böse all people, good and bad; all der Schmerz *all the pain*, but Sie kamen alle *They all came*. For further details concerning inflection see 111. 8.

In referring to definite persons and things which are clearly indicated by the context, the definite article is not used so frequently after all as in English, being usually employed only when it has strong demonstrative or determinative force: aller Wein, alle Butter all the wine, butter (in the house, &c., according to the connection). Alle Gäste verließen eiligst das Haus All the guests left the house in great haste. But with demonstrative or determinative force: All das Geld reicht nicht hin, ihn zufrieden zu stellen All this money (which has been given him) does not suffice to satisfy him. Bei all der Pracht ist er nicht glücklich In the midst of all the splendor, which surrounds him, he is not happy. All die (or alle die or simply alle) Gemälde, die er auf die Ausstellung gesandt hat, sind verkauft.

For the position of *alle* in the sentence see 1. *d. Note 2*, above.

Note 1. Instead of the regular str. forms, all often has wk. forms in the gen. (see 108) sing. when not preceded by def. art., and, perhaps, still more frequently in the gen. and dat. sing. when preceded by the article: trotz allen Vertrauens. Und fiel' ein Feind in unsre Gauen, | wir würden des allen die Früchte schauen (Grillparzer's *Libussa*, 2). Mir ist so angst bei dem allen. Ich werde nichts von dem allen tun.

Note 2. In the predicate in the sense of *out of* the invariable form *alle* is much used: Der Wein ist alle We are out of wine. Perhaps the form *alle* was originally a predicate appositive in the nom. pl., originating in such sentences as die Kuchen sind alle [verzehrt].

Note 3. Before the dat. neut. sing. the uninflected form *alle* is quite common: trotz alledem' in spite of all that.

Note 4. In the classical authors *alle* is sometimes equal to *jeder*: So schläft nun aller Vogel (Goethe). In a few cases we can still use both *alle* and *jeder*, the former with general, the latter with individualizing force: Aller oder jeder Anfang ist schwer. Wir hatten allen Grund (*every reason*, in a general sense) zum Verdacht gegen ihn. Getraz

genes Zeug aller Art (H. Seidel's *Das Atelier*, I). Usage now generally prefers here the sing. of jedz or the plural of allz, especially the latter, in a number of expressions: alle paar Minuten every few minutes, alle Tage every day, alle drei Tage every third day.

Note 5. After ohne we translate both allz and jedz by any: ohne alle (or ohne jede, or ohne alle und jede) Ursache without any reason.

Note 6. In the course of the present period allz has gradually been supplanted by ganzz in the meaning *whole, entire*, but the older usage still survives in poetic language: durch all sein Leben (Geibel, 2, 241), now usually durch sein ganzes Leben. Differentiation of meaning here has taken place in alle Welt everybody and die ganze Welt the universe. Compare die ganze Nacht all night; ganz Deutschland all Germany; die ganze Familie all the family.

Note 7. In dialect the neut. form alles is frequently contracted to als, which often by reason of this change of form becomes isolated from the original form, and takes on more general meaning, especially that of the adverb immerfort: Da saugt mir das Mädel — weiß Gott, was als (for alles) für? — überhimmlische Alanzereien ein (Miller in Schiller's *Kabale und Liebe*, 1, 1). Solltest nur die wunderhübsche Billeter auch lesen, die der gnädige Herr an deine Tochter als (= immerfort) schreiben tut (ib., Frau Miller).

b. einigz, earlier in the period = O.H.G. einag *one, only, single*, later, in N.H.G. *harmonious* (in this meaning still in use), and O.H.G. einig = irgend ein (see 1. e, above), from the latter of which come the common meanings of our day, *a few, some, several*, inflected strong and weak: der einige Gott (Matt. xix. 17), ein einiger Son (Tobit vi. 16). Denn du vermagst nicht ein einigz Har weiß und schwarz zu machen (Matt. v. 36). Kein Handwerksman einigz Handwerks (Rev. xviii. 22), aus Furcht des Todes oder sonst einigz Dinges (Claudius) from fear of death or some other thing; einigz frische Obst some fresh fruit, einige Schritte davon several steps away, in einiger Entfernung, einige Zeit darnach. In diesem Buche findet sich neben einigem Guten auch einigz Mittelmäßige und einigz Schlechte. Nur einige waren da Only a few people were there. Er besah die zwei Gespanne Ochsen, die Kühe, die einigen Schafe (Stifter's *Witiko*, 1. 202). See also 2. b. Note and 1. e, above.

aa. The forms etlichz (strong and weak = einigz and now being gradually displaced by it) and etwelchz (strong and weak = irgend ein or irgend welchz, or einigz in the sing. and irgend welchz and einige in the pl.) still occur in the literary language. The former was very common in Luther's language and is still sometimes used, and quite frequently so in archaic and biblical style. The latter form was not common earlier in the period, but it still lingers on in choice language: Etwelches kleine Geschenk mitzubringen sei immer empfehlenswert bei großen Herren (H. Hoffmann's *Teufel vom Sande*, p. 174). Zum Übersuß hatte er die Gewohnheit, jedesmal selbst gleichsam seine Visitenkarte abzugeben, vermöge etwelchen kleinen Unfußs, den er in dem betretenen Raume zu verüben für gut fand (id., *Rohleders hohe Minne*). Denn dieser pflegte an dergleichen niedlichen Geschichten Wohlgefallen zu haben, welche im Grunde doch mehr ihn verehrten, als er ihnen huldigte, da sein Alter und seine geistige Bedeutung eine Überlegenheit mit sich brachten, die nicht einmal durch etwelche Verliebtheit seinerseits auszugleichen war (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xv). Dann etwelche Portionen Kaffee, sagen wir verläufig fünf (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. xi). Das anvertraute Gut war viel zu kostbar, um es etwelchen Gefahren auszusetzen (H. Hoffmann). In the language of Switzerland it is often preceded by ein and der: Hierauf trat eine etwelche Besserung ein. Wegen der etwelchen Unsicherheit, in welcher die Männer die Welt halten (Keller's *Seldw.*, 2. 311).

c. g(c)ug (sometimes genug earlier in the period and still in poetry for the sake of a rhyme) *enough*, uninflected: Er hat genug

Geld, or Geld genug; genug Bücher. It formerly governed the genitive, which is still sometimes used: Es ist des Weins genug, or genug des Weins, or genug Wein, or Wein genug. See *i. Note*.

d. gesamt and sämtlich all, entire, complete, both strong and weak: die sämtlichen zwölf Kessel des Dampfschiffes waren im Betrieb. Schillers sämtliche Werke, die gesamte Familie, mit gesamter Heeresmacht, die gesamten Armen des Ortes; eine Arbeit, die ihre gesamten Geisteskräfte in Anspruch nahm.

Note. Usually, as in the above examples, *gesamt*, in accordance with the force of its prefix *ge-*, denotes a union of homogeneous or integral parts into *one* whole, and even when used in the plural has the force of *one* mass or a corps of forces working as *one*, while *sämtlich* in the sing. or pl. indicates that there are different distinct units which form the whole. They both differ from the more common and general *alle* in that the latter simply indicates that the quantity or number is complete and lacks the distinct idea of a union of integral or homogeneous parts or individual forces working toward a common end. Different from the preceding is *ganz*, which does not refer at all to the parts that make up a whole, but represents in idea an undivided whole, or in the plural undivided wholes: der ganze Körper the whole body, mit ganzem Herzen with all my heart, das ganze Haus the whole house, die ganze Familie, die einzige schöne Frau der ganzen Gassen (G. Ompteda) the only beautiful woman in all the different branches of the Eysen family, ganze Schuhe shoes that are not rent. Die Kriege der Gegenwart rufen die ganzen Völker zu den Waffen (Moltke).

e. fein no, none, not a, not (see *Note*), *no one, not a one*, inflected like the indef. article *ein* when used adjectively in the sing., but like a strong adjective when standing alone (see 108) in the sing. or pl., or when used adjectively in the plural: kein Buch. Ein Buch ist besser als kein(e)s. Das steht in keines or keines Menschen Macht. Keine Bücher. For the partitive genitive after *kein* see *Note* under *i*, below.

Note 1. The adverb *no* is translated by *nein*. The adjective *no* is rendered by *kein*, but *kein* has a broader field than the English adjective *no*, as it also generally corresponds to *not a, not* (with intervening words) *a, not any, and not* (before a noun or a noun and its modifiers): Das ist kein übler Einfall That is not a bad idea. Weiche keinen Fingerbreit von Gottes Wegen ab Do not deviate a finger's breadth from God's ways. Bitte, geben Sie mir Käse. Ich habe keinen im Hause Please give me some cheese. I haven't any in the house. Es ist noch keine sechs Uhr (colloquial) It is not six o'clock yet. *Kein* is the negative of *ein*, but it has a broader field, as it can stand where *ein* usually cannot, namely, before names of materials, abstract nouns, and in the plural: Ich habe kein Geld. Er kennt keinen Kummer. Das Kind hat keine Eltern. *Kein* is replaced by *nicht* or *nicht ein* when it is desired to bring out especial emphasis or a contrast: Ein Vater schuf die Welt, *kein* (or emphatically *nicht ein*) Gott des Strafgerichtes. Nicht rettet nicht Gewalt, nicht List.

Note 2. In early N.H.G. and still in dialect *kein* has also the meaning *any*. For example see 277. 1. B. a. This double meaning of *no* and *any* comes from the fact that two different M.H.G. words (*dechein any* and *nechein no*) have received the same form, namely, *kein*.

f. lauter and now less commonly eitel nothing but, indeclinable: lauter schöne Blumen. Natürlich ist das alles eitel Wind (talk, wind)! Es herrschte eitel Ruhe und Frieden.

Note. These words are still inflected in early N.H.G.: aus lauterem Haß (Ezek. xxxv. 11).

g. mehr more, usually uninflected: mehr Geld; mehr Leute. See *i. Note*. For the form *mehrere* see 117. 1. b.

Note. Throughout the period attempts have been made by good authors to introduce inflection, and such forms still occur: Ein Duzend Häuser stehen schon in Brand, und

es kommen ihrer noch sehr viel mehre dran (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. xxviii). Inflection is most common in the adverb *mehrtheils* = *meistenteils*.

h. übrig the rest, remaining, superfluous, strong and weak: Er tut nie ein übriges He never does more than he has to do. Im übrigen Europa in the rest of Europe; die übrigen Personen; im übrigen, or was das übrige betrifft *as to the rest*.

i. viel much, pl. many, strong and weak, inflected or uninflected, but inflected always when preceded by the definite article or a pronominal adjective and almost always in the pl. when used substantively: viel or viele Bücher, viele (or viel) gute Bücher, die vielen Bücher, viel Gutes, vieles Gute, mit viel Gutem, viele many persons, die vielen. Laß dein vieles Reden.

Note. Viel, wenig, mehr, genug are here for practical reasons classed as adjectives inflected or uninflected, but the following is a more scientific statement of the case. They were in earlier periods construed as indeclinable substantives, requiring a dependent partitive gen., and still admit of this construction, but take now usually the appositional construction after them, especially in the sing., or in case of viel and wenig are also used as inflected attributive adjectives: early in the period viel Volks (Mark viii. 1), viel falscher Propheten (Matt. xxiv. 11); now viel Geld, viel edle Männer (in apposition with viel), or viele (adjective) edle Männer. When the article or a pronominal adjective precedes, viel and wenig are always inflected: Er lebt von dem wenigen Vermögen, das ihm übrig geblieben ist. In certain set expressions coined in an earlier period, the older construction of the indeclinable substantive with its dependent partitive gen. remains intact, and cannot be replaced by the newer one of attributive adj. before its substantive: viel Aufhebens von etwas machen to make a great fuss about something, viel Wesens von etwas machen to make much ado about something. After the analogy of such expressions, a gen. stands after ein and sein, which are themselves uninflected after the manner of viel: Kein Mensch hat davon ein Aufhebens gemacht (Bismarck's *Reden*, 2. 76) No one has made a fuss about it; but also Ich meinte, Sie wären doch viel zu sehr von der Wissenschaft und Philosophie, um um solch 'ne Kleinigkeit so'n Aufheben zu machen (Raabe's *Der Lar*, p. 23). Er macht kein Federlesens He will make short work of it. It is evident, however, that the feeling for the partitive gen. in such cases is very faint or entirely absent, for when a qualifying adj. stands between the pronominal adj. and the noun, both pronominal adj. and qualifying adj. are apparently considered as attributive modifiers, and hence agree in case with the noun, which is itself, in spite of its gen. ending, construed as a nom. or acc., i.e. the subject or object of the verb and not as a partitive gen.: Die Jupiterstatue des Hibias, von der damals einiges Aufhebens gemacht wurde (Ebner-Eschenbach). Mach' mir kein großes Aufhebens! Don't make a great fuss, I beg of you! Also without a limiting word: ohne Rühmens (acc.) (Grünebaum in Raabe's *Hungerpastor*, chap. vi).

The words viel, wenig, mehr, genug are differently treated when they express the idea of number and stand alone or before a pronoun or a noun which is modified by an article or pronominal adj. In these cases viel and wenig are usually inflected, and if modified must be followed by the partitive gen., or by von or unter with dat., while genug and mehr are indeclinable here, but like viel and wenig are followed by the gen., or von with dat.: viele waren da many persons were there, aber diesem Rufe folgten heute nur wenig [as a survival of older usage; more commonly wenige] (Fontane's *Quint*, chap. vi), viele von ihnen, viele dieser Bücher, or viele von (or unter) diesen Büchern; genug waren da enough people were there, mehr solcher (or solche) Leute, mehr von ihnen, genug der Träume.

Genug, mehr, viel, and wenig are all used as indeclinable substantives when they denote an indefinite mass or amount, in which case they may stand alone or be followed by the gen. or the dat. after the prep. von: Ich habe genug davon. Genug des Geschwäges or genug von dem Geschwäg. Du reichst mit wenig von dem bessern Stoff (or des bessern Stoffes) weiter als mit viel von dem schlechtern You will accomplish more with a little of the better material than with much of the worse. See also 253. 1. g. *Note* 2, with reference to the number of the verb after these words. The substantives viel and wenig may also be inflected, taking the neut. forms of the strong adjective, however, usually with a different shade of meaning from the uninflected

forms. The former may, in accordance with the nature of the neut. gender, contain a collective idea, while the uninflected form emphasizes the idea of amount: *Ich meine nicht vieles, sondern viel: ein wenig, aber mit Fleiß* (Lessing's *Emilia*, 1, 2) I do not mean [that an artist should work on] many things, but much of one thing: a few things, but with diligence.

j. wenig, earlier in the period and in a few expressions still *little* in size, value, importance, now and throughout the period more commonly *little* in amount, pl. *few*; strong and weak, inflected or uninflected, but inflected always when preceded by the definite article or a pronominal adjective and almost always in the plural when used substantively: *Denn du bist das wenigst unter allen Völkern* (Deut. vii. 7). *Meine wenige Person* (Adelung); *wenig Gutes, wenig, gutes, mit wenig Gutem*; *wenig or wenige Bücher*; *mit seinem wenigen Gelde*; *das wenige Geld, was ich besaß* (Raabe). *Ich malte es mir aus mit der wenigen Phantasie, die mir gegeben* (Opfeda's *Frieden*, VI). *Die wenigen Bücher, wenige few persons, die wenigen*. See *i. Note*.

Note. The comparative form *weniger*, though inflected in the earlier part of the period, now prefers decidedly non-inflection except where ambiguity would arise therefrom: *Es waren heute weniger Abgeordnete versammelt als gestern* There were fewer representatives present to-day than yesterday. But *weit weniger Freisinnige much fewer Liberals* is clearer than *weit weniger Freisinnige, which might mean far less liberal-minded men*, as *weniger* can be construed as an adverb. As the positive is sometimes inflected and sometimes uninflected, the form *weniger* is sometimes ambiguous, as it may be construed as a fem. gen. or dat., or as the uninflected comparative. Thus in *mit weniger Mühe* the meaning may be *with little trouble* or *with less trouble*. The ambiguity can be avoided by dropping inflection in the former meaning and by substituting the inflected comparative of *gering little* for the uninflected comparative *weniger* or the rare inflected form *wenigerer*: *mit wenig Mühe with little trouble, mit geringer Mühe with less trouble*. On the other hand, the uninflected form should be avoided in the positive when it would stand before an adjective, as it might be construed as an adverb: not *Er versteht mit wenig gebildeten Herren*, but *Er versteht mit wenigen gebildeten Herren* He associates with few educated men.

k. welch some, strong: *Haben Sie Zucker—Milch—Geld—Äpfel? Ich habe welchen—welche—welches—welche*. It serves as the plural of *ein* and is also used instead of the singular of *ein* when the reference is to materials; see *1. e*, above, also *134. 2*. Sometimes with the definite article: *Da (auf dem Wasser) sind sie (die Schiffer) was un da haben sie'n weiten Blick — die welchen wenigstens, die welchen auch nicht* (M. Dreyer's *In Behandlung*, 1). A number of grammarians are unfriendly to this word, but they are not supported by actual usage: *Wenn die Pferdchen nicht Geschäfte haben, so möchte ich Väterchen wohl bitten, daß er welche zu heut über acht Tage, 27. früh nach Schlawe oder Stolz schickte* (Bismarck to his wife, Oct. 21, 1850). *Unanfechtbare Wahrheiten gibt es überhaupt nicht, und wenn es welche gibt, so sind sie langweilig* (Fontane's *Stechlin*, chap. i). *"Rosen!" "Das sind mindestens für fünfzig Mark welche," meinte Marie, "so ein Haufen!"* (H. Böhlau's *Adam und Eva*, chap. vi). The examples could be indefinitely increased, as the word is a general favorite in colloquial language.

PRONOUNS.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

140. The personal pronouns are: *ich I, du (familiar form) thou or you, Sie (polite form) you, er he, sie she, es it.* These are declined as follows:

Singular.

<i>First Person</i>		<i>Second Person</i>		<i>Third Person.</i>		
(for all Genders).		(for all Genders).		Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
		<i>Familiar.</i>	<i>Polite (see a).</i>			
N.	ich	du	Sie	er	sie	es
G.	meiner (mein)	deiner (dein)	Ihrer	seiner (sein)	ihrer (ihr)	seiner (sein, es)
D.	mir	dir	Ihnen	ihm	ihr	ihm
A.	mir	dir	Sie	ihn	sie	es

Plural.

				For all Genders.
N.	wir	ihr	Sie	sie
G.	unser un(s)erer	euer eu(e)rer	Ihrer	(ihr) ihrer
D.	uns	euch	Ihnen	ihnen
A.	uns	euch	Sie	sie

a. The polite form of the second person is in reality only the capitalized forms of the 3rd person pl. The pl. is exactly like the sing. This form is now used in all ordinary intercourse between people except in the familiar language of close friendship. Although it is so common in actual life, it is almost unknown in poetic language and higher diction generally, as the air of conventionality associated with it ill accords with the spirit of poetry.

The familiar form *du* in the sing. and *ihr* in the pl. is used towards animals, children, and friends, also quite commonly in lyrical poetry and in the solemn language of the Church and prayer, and stating general truths not directed to any person in particular, and occasionally in addressing individuals not as such, but as a class in an informal and general way, where it is not necessary to observe the formalities of polite society, and furthermore in polemical treatises in directing words directly to one's opponent: *Sage mir, mit wem du umgehst und ich will dir sagen, wer du bist* (a proverb couched in familiar language, since the address is to no person in particular). *Aber die Herren Journalisten haben Nerven, wie die Frauen. Alles regt euch auf, jedes Wort, das jemand gegen euch sagt, empört euch! Geht mir (away with you), ihr seid empfindliche Leute* (Freitag's *Journalisten*, I, I). In the last three sentences the speaker addresses in a general way several sharp remarks in the familiar form to journalists as a class, but he would not be so impolite as to use this form in speaking directly to

any one person or a definite group of persons. Kurzſichtigſter aller Schullehrer, verſchönerſter aller Bedanten, iſt dir denn niemals davon eine Spur der Erkenntnis aufgegangen, daß gerade ihre unerschöpfliche Fruchtbarkeit der größte Vorzug der deutschen Sprache iſt? (the reply of Dr. Karl Kaerger to the lamentations of Dr. Gustav Wustmann over the decay of the German language).

Note. The Roman and Byzantine emperors spoke of themselves in their official announcements in the pl. instead of the sing., as 'We decree' instead of 'I decree.' This usage was imitated by German kings, bishops, dukes, &c., in their official decrees, and still in our own time the German emperor writes (Oct. 28, 1893): Wir Wilhelm, von Gottes Gnaden deutscher Kaiser, König von Preußen usw. verordnen usw. A person of high rank speaking thus of himself in the 1st person pl. must use the possessive *unser* instead of *mein*: Es iſt uns zu Ehren gekommen, daß unsere getreuen lieben Untertanen usw.

In the ninth century such persons in high standing who thus spoke of themselves in the 1st person pl. were by others addressed by *Ihr* (2nd pers. pl.) instead of the 2nd person sing. Later all persons of rank or even of good standing were addressed by *Ihr*, and thus *Ihr* became the universal polite form till the fourteenth century. In the Middle Ages children also addressed each of their parents by *Ihr*, which custom lingers still in places in the country: Vater, das erste Reis, das Euch auf Eurem Heimweg an den Hut stößt, das brecht für mich ab (from Grimm's *Märchen*).

Within the period between the fourteenth and the sixteenth century a new form of address became gradually established towards persons of high rank. From a feeling of hesitation to approach them directly they were addressed indirectly by their pompous titles, which caused the verb to be placed in the 3rd person, at first either in the singular or plural, later only in the plural. Wenn Euer kaiserliche Gnade glaubte, so würde Sie Gottes Herrlichkeit sehen (Luther). Haben Euer fürstliche Durchleuchtigkeit (Durchlauchtigkeit) auch Falken? (1594, H. J. v. Braunschweig). As in the preceding examples, the possessive *Euer*, which was used in connection with the old polite form of address *Ihr*, was still inconsistently retained in connection with the new polite form in the 3rd person, but the new possessive *Ihr* referring to a fem. or pl. noun in the 3rd person soon sprang up. The possessive form *Ihr* was used either because the title to which reference was made was usually fem., or it was thought that the pl. form of the verb which was so often used with these titles required a possessive which referred to more than one. In the seventeenth century the uninflected possessive *Ihro* sprang up to vie with *Euer* and *Ihr*. See also 138. i. a.

Towards the close of the sixteenth century the direct address in the 3rd person, so common with persons of rank, began to be used also in polite address generally. The titles Herr Mr. and Frau Mrs. were used, and farther on in the same sentence or following ones replaced by the pronouns *Er* and *Sie*. Finally Herr and Frau dropped out, and *Er* and *Sie* with the 3rd person sing. of the verb were used in direct address: Wohin geht Er? Where are you going? (addressed to a gentleman). Wohin geht Sie? (to a lady). Frederic the Great addressed his highest officers by *Er*. *Ihr* was the next polite form, and *du* was used towards friends or to inferiors.

Towards the close of the seventeenth century a new polite address arose, which began a struggle for supremacy with the polite forms *Er*, *Sie*, and *Ihr* already in use. The new polite form was *Sie*, the 3rd person pl. instead of the 3rd person sing., thus only having one form for the two genders. This new form gained the final victory somewhere near 1740 and became firmly fixed by the rich prose literature which sprang up at this time. However, *Er*, *Sie*, *Ihr*, *du* still continued to be used with varying shades of meaning. Towards the third quarter of the eighteenth century, *Sie* (with the verb in the 3rd pers. pl.) was the very polite form used to persons of high rank or position, or as a special mark of respect. *Er* and *Sie* (with verb in 3rd pers. sing.) were the ordinary polite forms for ordinary people not well acquainted, for older people in addressing respectfully those younger, for those in higher station in addressing in respectful tone those in lower station, or for young people who desired to be respectful to older people but not coldly formal. *Ihr* was still less formal, and *du* with its pl. *ihr* was used towards intimate friends or towards young people. This state of things can be seen in Lessing's play *Minna von Barnhelm*, and continued over into the nineteenth century, and even lingers still in the conservative country districts, as can be seen in recent authors who give us pictures of rural life, as in

Ludwig's *Der Erbförster* and Ebner-Eschenbach's *Die Unverständene auf dem Dorfe*. The student must remember, however, that this relation of *Sie*, *Ihr*, and *Er* to each other will not usually be found in the more stately language of the higher forms of the dramatic literature of this period, for *Sie* is here replaced by *Ihr*. Thus in Goethe's *Faust*, Margaret addresses her neighbor Martha by *Sie* (3rd sing. fem.), towards whom she desires to be at once respectful and cordial, while she addresses Faust at first by the more formal and dignified *Ihr*. Martha addresses Margaret by the familiar *du*, but usually uses *Ihr* to the stranger Mephistopheles. For our own time usage is given above. *Er* and *Sie* (with verb in sing.), once so polite, have sunk in rank even below *Ihr*, and are now very rarely used except in a half-jesting familiar tone, while *Ihr*, which was promoted to use in poetry and elevated discourse, especially in the more serious dramas of the classical period and the early part of the nineteenth century, has been relegated to use among peasants, where it is in sections still employed as a form of address to avoid the too familiar *du* and the too polite *Sie* (with verb in pl.). The polite form *Sie* has in the drama of our day in large measure replaced the stately *Ihr* of the classical period, as the language of the drama has in general taken on to a greater extent than ever before the form and tone of the living spoken language. In the recent dramas, however, that are of a high ideal character, removed from the common scenes of every day, the traditions of the classical drama are faithfully preserved and the stately *Ihr* prevails.

For the peculiar use of pronouns in over-polite language, see *f*, below.

b. The short forms for the gen. sing. are now rarely found except in a few set expressions and in poetry. Though grammarians concede that the long forms have gained the victory for the gen. sing., they still dispute the victory of all the long forms except *ihrer* for the pl. Of these short forms *ihr* (earlier spelling *jr*) for the gen. fem. and gen. pl. for all genders is now (except occasionally in the gen. pl. before *aller*, as in *Ihr aller Glückwünsche empfang ich*) entirely obsolete, although used much in early N.H.G., and even occurring sometimes in poetry up to our own time: *Der Herr bedarf jr* (Matt. xxi. 3). *Da wurden jr beider Augen aufgethan* (Gen. iii. 7). *Allein je mehr die Seele wert, je mehr der Teufel ihr begehrt* (Uhland). But now *ihrer*, not only in the sing. but also in the pl.: *ihrer beider Augen*. Hence it is only natural that the plural gen. of the other pronouns often assume the long form after the analogy of *ihrer*. In spite of the oft-repeated protests of the grammarians, these forms are quite common in every style of literature: *Ich erinnere mich Eurer nicht* (Goethe's *Götz*, 3, 6). *O meine Eltern! Muß ich erst jetzt, jetzt eurer mich erinnern!* (Grillparzer's *Sappho*, 2, 1). *Kein merkwürdigerer Gegensatz hätte unserer warten können* (G. Keller's *Nachgelassene Schriften*, 223). *So Ihr Euch nur wacker haltet, | wartet Eurer noch ein Stuhl im | hohen Reichsgericht zu Weßlar* (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, zweites Stück). *So sind Eurer zu viel* (Freitag's *Rittmeister*, chap. iv). *So muß ich es tun statt eurer* (Fontane's *Schach von Wuthenow*, chap. iv). *Als man unserer aber ansichtig wurde* (id., *Stechlin*, chap. vi). *So lachen wir eurer* (Raabe's *A.T.*, chap. xxiii). *Und laßt dies Vett statt Eurer mich besteigen* (M. Greif's *Heinrich der Löwe*, 2, 1). *Wir müßten unserer hundert sein, um das Erforderliche tun zu können* (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!* III, p. 270). *Die Tafel wartet Eurer, Herr König* (Wildenbruch's *König Heinrich*, 1, 9). *Ja König, um unserer aller willen* (Sudermann's *Teja*, 3). *Du hörst den Jubel aller Frühlingsfänger, die unsrer warten* (Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*, 1. 1208). *Vor eurer aller Augen* (Fulda's *Talisman*, 1, 9). *Und dann wäre auch wohl mal die Zeit gekommen, daß du dich unserer geschämt hättest* (Ompfeda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XCI).

Jetzt oder nie bedarf ich eurer (H. von Hofmannsthal's *Die Hochzeit der Sobeide*, p. 97).

In Luther's earlier writings the old dat. pl. 3rd pers. *in* (M.H.G. *in*) is still used. The weakened form *en* is still found in the language of the youthful Goethe: *Ich will 'en die Würme* (now *Würmer*) *schon aus der Nase ziehn* (*Urfaust*, p. 23). This weakened form is still in use in colloquial language, but is no longer written.

The lengthened forms *meiner*, *deiner*, *seiner*, *ihrer*, instead of older *mein*, *tein*, *sein*, *ihr*, have probably arisen under the influence of the ending *er* in the gen. pl. forms *unser* and *euer*. The modern ending *en* in the dat. pl. *ihnen* has probably been added to older *ihn* under the influence of the dat. pl. ending in nouns and adjectives.

c. The old neut. gen. sing. *es* is still found in a few set expressions; but is in fact not felt as a genitive: *Ich bin es müde* I am tired of it. *Er will es nicht Wort haben* He will not acknowledge it. *Dann wird es jeder Dank wissen, wenn Preußens Regent und Preußens Heer bereit sind* (Raabe's *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. xix). This *es* is now felt as a nom. or acc., and this false conception has led to the use of the nom. or acc. of other words, where the gen. should stand: *Es* (gen. construed as nom., hence also *daß*) *nimmt mich Wunder* It surprises me, lit. wonderment seizes me on account of it. *Es stand also wirklich schlimm; aber daß* (acc.) *wollte er nicht Wort haben* (Spielhagen's *Freigeborenen*, p. 264). *Ich weiß dir deine* (acc.; better *für deine*) *Freigebigkeit großen Dank* (Alex. König, *1001 Nacht*, II. p. 15). See also 260. 3. b, and 262. II. B. b).

d. The gen. of all genders and numbers in composition with the prepositions *wegen* *on account of*, *willen* *for the sake of*, *halben* (or *halb*) *on account of*, change the last letter of their long forms to *t*: *meinethwegen* on my account, for all I care; *meinethwillen* for my sake; *meinethalben* on my account; *beinethwegen*, &c.

Note 1. This is only a convenient way of stating this rule, for *et* in *meineth*, *beineth*, &c. is in reality not the gen. ending of the personal pronouns at all, but the corrupted form of a possessive adj. In compounds with *halben* (sometimes contracted to *halb*) and *wegen*, the second element is in reality a noun in the dat. pl., used adverbially (see 223. I. 10. c), the first element is the modifying possessive: *meinen halben*, lit. *upon my sides* (i. e. account), or *meinen wegen*. The compounds with *willen* are in reality in the acc. sing. governed by the prep. *um*: *(um) ihre(n)twillen* = *um ihren Willen* (still in this form in Luther's Bible, Gen. xii. 16). In all these cases an excrescent *t* has forced its way into the words after the *n* of the possessive, followed by the dropping of *n*. However, by popular conception these possessives are construed as the genitive of the personal pronouns, and indeed often the real genitive of the personal pronouns can be heard: *Wegen meiner lies!* (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act 1) *Read for all I care!* The genitive forms are the rule when the pronoun is separated from the preposition by several words: *meiner selbst und beinethwegen*, *deiner und der Mutter wegen*.

Note 2. Instead of the ending *et* or *er* we often find *es* in colloquial language after the analogy of the genitive of nouns in such expressions as *Rechts halben*, *Gesundheitswegen*: *Weinshalben redet doch, was ihr wollt* (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act 1). *Weinawegen* (ib.; also Hirschfeld's *Agnes Jordan*, Act 3). We sometimes find the double ending *t es*: *mein'tawegen* (Anzengruber's *Schandfleck*, chap. xiii).

e. On account of the enclitic or proclitic nature of the personal pronouns they often in colloquial language suffer aphaeresis, syncope, or a shortening of the vowel. If monosyllabic the initial

vowel, if disyllabic the unaccented *e*, may drop out, as in the following examples taken from Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*: Und der Junge . . . na ja! Dem gibt man seine Milch, man hält'n (for ihn) sauber . . . aber das kann 'ne Magd auch machen, und später . . . später kann ich'm (for ihm) doch nichts mehr bieten. Ich muß Ihn'n sagen. Ich hab's (for es) schon lange bemerkt. The one form 's (for es) is now common even in the literary form of speech. In colloquial language unaccented *Sie* often becomes *Se* (20).

Note. In dialect the personal pronouns are often curiously deformed, as in the following: *mir* (for *wir*), arising from assimilation to the final consonant of the preceding verb, as in *haben mir* (for *haben wir*); *dir* (or *der*) or *tir* (or *ter*) = *ihr*, arising from such forms as *sei dir* (for *seid ihr*); *nä* (for *sie*), from such forms as *habn's* (for *haben sie*).

f. In over-polite language, when the address is to a superior, the direct form *Sie* is avoided in the first instance and the title in the third person used instead. Later on in the sentence when the same person is again addressed, the third person pl. form of the personal pronoun is used and also the possessive corresponding to this form, both pronoun and possessive, however, being written with a capital letter to indicate direct address: Dem Karl muß man gut sein, der ist so alert, wie was, Herr Amtsrat werden Ihre Freude haben (Arnold). Mein Herz weißagt, Ew. Durchlaucht werden die Erhaltung meines Lebens, daß ganz Ihnen gehört, nicht verschmähen, und mich in der Ferne als Ihren unveräußerten Untertanen betrachten wollen (J. H. Voss). In early N.H.G., however, the pronouns of the third person sing. could also be used here, as the verb could also be in the sing. (see *Note* under *a*, above): Da nun Ew. kurfürstliche Gnade begehrt zu wissen, was Sie tun soll in dieser Sache, zumal Sie meint, Sie habe viel zu wenig getan, so antworte ich untertänig, Ew. kurfürstliche Gnaden hat schon allzuviel getan, und sollte gar nichts tun (Luther).

When the person is spoken of in the third person, the third person pl. form of the pronoun is now also used here, but is written with a small letter: Der Herr Maler lassen sich empfehlen, und sie würden am Sonntag zum Diner erscheinen (report of a servant to his mistress in Wildenbruch's *Eifernde Liebe*, chap. vi) The artist sends his compliments and begs to say that it will give him great pleasure to dine with you on Sunday.

g. In Gothic the personal pronouns have a dual, i. e. a form used in addressing two persons. Later the dual disappeared from the literary language, and the plural assumed its office in addition to its own. In Bavarian and Austrian dialects, however, the dual forms for the second person, *es* or *es*, *enfer*, *enf*, *enf*, replaced the plural forms *ihr*, *euer*, *euch*, *euch*, and are still generally used, filling the office of both dual and plural: Umföhren könnt's (for *könnt es* = *könnt ihr*), sitz der Bete hervor. Aus ist's. Der Anderl (name) laßt sagen: Mir (for *wir*; see *e. Note*) brauchen *enf* nicht (Rosegger). From the frequent contraction of the verb with the following dual has arisen the idea that the 2nd pers. pl. ending of the indic. and imper. is *tō*: D's jung' Feut' konnt's freilich nur 'n lustigen Steinflopfershanns (Anzengruber's *Kreuzelschreiber*, 3, 1). Gehts jetzt, Kinder, gehts ein wenig in den Hof 'naus (Raimund's *Der Verschwander*, 3, 7).

141. Personal pronouns have a much narrower range of usefulness in German than in English. The lack of accent and other

defects cause them very often to be replaced by heavier or more explicit forms.

1. When the *third* person is emphasized, the demon. *der, die, das* very often takes the place of the personal pronoun: *Mit dem* kann man nichts machen You can't do anything with *him*. Und ein Hut, ein Hut! *Mit dem* ging ich nicht in der Wüste Sahara um Mitternacht What a hat! I wouldn't wear it in the desert of Sahara at midnight.

2. The gen. sing. and pl. of pronouns representing things is regularly replaced by the demon. genitives *dessen, deren, or desselben, derselben*: *Behalte dein Geld*; ich bedarf *dessen* nicht Keep your money; I am not in need of it. *Spare die Worte*; es sind *deren* genug gewechselt Save your words; enough of them have already been spoken. *Sie, trotz eines languissanten Zuges, oder vielleicht auch um desselben willen, eine Schönheit ersten Ranges* (Fontane's *Cécile*, chap. ix).

Note. The partitive gen. of personal pronouns representing either persons or things may often be replaced in the 3rd person not only by the gen. of *der* or *derselbe*, but also by the dat. of the personal pronoun after the prep. *von* in case of persons and the adverbial compound of the prep. with the demon. *da* (see 5 below) in case of things: *viele derselben, deren viele* many of them (persons or things according to the context), *sechs von ihnen* six (persons) of them, *sechs davon* six (things) of them. The dat. after *von* may also replace the gen. of the first and second persons: *sechs von uns*. Sometimes the prep. *unter* is used instead of *von*: *welcher unter euch* which of you, who among you.

3. The gen. of a pronoun which represents a thing and depends upon a noun preceded by the indefinite article or a pronominal adjective is usually replaced by the gen. of *derselbe*, not by the gen. of *der*: *Es blieb nichts übrig als den Bart abzuschneiden*; dabei ging ein kleiner Teil *desselben* (of it) verloren (Märchen). *Zwischen meiner letzten Heimkehr ins Vaterhaus und meinem endgültigen Verlassen desselben* (Raabe). In case of a reference to an amount we may also use an adverbial compound here: *Er hatte die von Anna ihm mitgegebenen Brotschnitte aus seiner Jagdtasche genommen*; aber er aß nur einen kleinen Teil *davon* (Storm's *Schweigen*).

4. The simple dative forms of the personal pronouns are not freely used with reference to things, but nevertheless occur in limited measure: *Die Unternehmungen meines Busens sind zu groß, als daß du ihnen im Wege stehen solltest* (Goethe's *Götz*, 4, 4). *Beide liebten das Zimmer, und gaben ihm auf Kosten aller andern den Vorzug* (Fontane's *Schach von Wuthenow*, IV). The dat. forms *ihm, ihr, ihnen* are so thoroughly identified with persons that they are in general avoided in reference to things. It seems that present usage prefers here the dat. of *derselbe*: *Versuche, den Verein zu verfolgen, werden demselben nur neues Wachstum verleihen*. *Durch Höhe der Gebäude suchte man zu ersetzen, was denselben an Breite und Tiefe abging*.

The dat. *dem* is usually used with reference to the thought of a preceding clause or sentence: *Das Fräulein tat einen affectierten Schrei und wich zurück*. *Joachim schenkte dem keine Beachtung, sondern sagte bloß, &c.* (Marriot's *Der geistliche Tod*, chap. xviii).

5. A. The dat. and acc. of the personal pronouns of all genders and numbers, when they represent things, are not usually used after prepositions, but are replaced by an adverbial compound formed

by appending the prep. to the demon. adverb *da* (before consonants except in case of *darnach*, which occurs about as frequently as *danach*) or *dar* (before a vowel): *Hier ist ein Tisch und d(a)rauf' (for auf ihm) ist ein Buch. Er kam vor eine Tür und stieß dage'gen (for gegen sie). A: Er hatte mir versprochen, diese wichtigen Briefe auf die Post zu geben. B: Wenn Ihnen daran' liegt, will ich damit' (with them) hingehen. Seine Stühle waren uralt, aber er lud täglich jemanden ein, darauf zu sitzen (Goethe).*

In colloquial language these adverbial compounds *may* in a few cases be used with reference to *das Mädchen*, and hence in this one instance may refer to persons: *Nämlich der junge Mensch . . . in unserer Geschichtserzählung kriegt sein Mädchen ebenfalls, und wird so glücklich damit als möglich (Raabe's Gutmanns Reisen, Intr.).*

The one preposition in is changed to *ein* in these compounds to express the acc. relation (223. I. 9): *Wer andern eine Grube gräbt, fällt selbst d(a)rein' Who digs a pitfall for others may fall into it himself, but Ist er im Hause? Nein, er ist nicht d(a)rin.*

Sometimes another adverb can be used instead of *da*: *Endlich fanden wir das Zimmer und gingen hinein.*

In connection with the rule for the use of these adverbial compounds study carefully *e* and *B*, below, where exceptions to the rule are given. The literary language of our time is not in general favorable to adverbial compounds as substitutes for pronouns, and the rule is not so broad and not so uniformly followed as the grammarians represent. See also 153. 2. A.

a. This same construction is used when the reference is to persons, if they are taken collectively: *Viele Knaben waren da, aber Wilhelm war nicht darun'ter Many boys were there, but William was not among them, or in the crowd.*

It is also used with reference to words representing persons where the reference is more to the abstract idea contained in the word than to an individual: *Hatten sie keinen Kaiser? Liebe Frau! Er ist nur der Schatten davon (Goethe's Götz, 4, 4) He is only the shadow of one.*

b. In the preceding compounds the accent rests upon the vowel of the preposition, and hence the vowel of the preceding adverb being slighted is often entirely suppressed. By shifting the accent from the preposition to the adverb *da* a new point of view is gained. In *da(r)*, which is of the same origin as the demonstrative *der*, the demonstrative force becomes strong with the aid of the accent, and the attention is called to the place or all the attendant circumstances: *nicht da'durch, hier'durch not through that entrance, but through this. Dar'an erkenn(e) ich ihn By that very thing I recognize him. Was er einmal sagt, da'bei bleibt er. Often doubled, especially in popular language: Da'drin, nicht hier'drin.*

Note. In early N.H.G. the demonstrative adverb *da* was here not so closely united with the preposition as now, but could be separated from it by several words, and so occasionally even later in the classical period: *Da soll es bei bleiben (Luther). Da behüte mich Gott vor (Goethe). In popular speech this usage is still common: Da muß ein Loch in sein (Jensen's Schatzsucher, p. 266). When thus separated the *da* has demonstrative force, and hence is strongly accented. Where, however, the demonstrative force is weak the *da* is often omitted altogether in easy colloquial and popular language: *Hängen Sie den ganzen Krämpel an den Nagel! Kommt ja doch nichts bei (=dabei) 'raus! (Halbe's Die Heimatlosen, p. 52).**

c. *Hier* + preposition has often pure demonstrative force, being equal to *dieser* and preposition, and hence has then the accent and cannot be con-

tracted: Hier'in haben Sie recht In this respect you are right. The accent, however, is placed upon the preposition if the demonstrative force is weak.

d. Thus we see in *b* and *c* that the demonstratives *der* and *dieser*, when they refer to things, are replaced after prepositions in the same way as the personal pronouns, differing from the latter only in accent.

e. The regular pronominal forms are, however, often preferred to the adverbial compounds in all grammatical and rhetorical uses, but especially in the plural (except in case of a collective idea) and where a thing or idea is personified, or is vividly pictured as having individual force or life: Er nahm einen Bogen Schreibpapier, der vor ihm auf dem Pulte lag, und begann auf ihm mit dem Bleistift allerhand Schnörkel und Arabesken zu zeichnen (Volkmann). Unmittelbar hinter dem Pfarrhause, steigt der Kirchhof lehnan, auf ihm so ziemlich in seiner Mitte die frühmittelalterliche Feldsteinkirche (Fontane's *Stechlin*, I. p. 4). Neben dem Zaun aber, in gleicher Linie mit ihm, stand eine grüngestrichene Bank (ib., VII. p. 105). Dies wackere umwölbende Firmament, dies majestätische Dach, mit goldenem Feuer ausgelegt — war alles in zu guter Ordnung, als daß wir uns auch nur den allergeringsten Miß durch es hätten vorstellen können (Raabe's *Alte Nester*, I. chap. x). Ach, Gott, was hat sie von meinen Gedanken ausstehen müssen! und was das Ärgste war, das Allergrößte war noch zurück und ging ihr über alles Übrige hinaus, bis sie sich auch in es, wie in alle meine anderen Unsinnigkeiten, mir zu Liebe, gefunden hatte (ib., chap. xiii). Von neuem wälzte es sich von allen Seiten her gegen das herzogliche Reithaus heran und in es hinein (id., *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. xv). In der Mitte stand ein gedeckter Tisch und auf ihm eine Anzahl irdener Teller (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Verschollen*). Ihre blauen Augen waren vielleicht zu hell, aber es lag Seele in ihnen (G. Ompteda). In Straßburg bildete sich jenes Leben in und mit der Natur, jenes Gefühl der Verwandtschaft, des Einsseins mit ihr (personifying nature) bei Goethe zu der Kraft und Tiefe aus, die in seiner Dichtung der nächsten Jahre als einen bedeutenden Fortschritt zur modernen Auffassung der Natur bewundern. Die Dichtung ist kein photographischer Apparat, der Autor kommt in ihr doch stets zum Vorschein (Richard Weissenfels).

In the same manner we often find the adverbial compound *hier* + preposition replaced by a preposition followed by a case form of the neuter of *dies*: Nach diesem — es war wieder ein Sonnabend — gingen Lewin und Hirschfeldt in die Pfarre (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, IV. chap. xxvii). The adverbial construction, however, is quite uniformly used to refer to a verb, or to the thought contained in a preceding or following phrase or proposition, also to refer collectively to things already mentioned: Wird er kommen? Ich zweifle daran. Aber sage mir doch, fragte die Weide den Dornstrauch, warum du nach den Kleibern der vorbeigehenden Menschen so begierig bist. Was willst du damit?

B. Not all prepositions can, as in A, form compounds with the demonstrative *da*, but this construction is limited to *an*, *auf*, *aus*, *bei*, *durch*, *für*, *gegen*, *hinter*, *in*, *mit*, *nach*, *neben*, *ob*, *ohne* (only, however, in popular language), *über*, *unter*, *um*, *von*, *vor*, *wider*, *zu*, *zwischen*. In case of other prepositions, this construction is replaced by others:

a. The preps. *halb* and *wegen* are appended to the gen. of the demon. pronoun (see 129. 2. A. a): *deshalb*, *deswegen* on account of it, therefore.

b. After all other preps. or prep. phrases with the force of a prep. the personal pronouns are usually replaced by *derselbe*: Sie wollte sich durch das Geld Vorteile verschaffen, auf die sie ohne dasselbe nicht rechnen konnte. In meinem dritten Jahre befiel mich eine schwere Krankheit und ich blieb in Folge derselben an allen Gliedern gelähmt.

Note. We often find *derselbe* even after prepositions which can form with *da* the adverbial compounds described in A: Und segnete den siebenden Tag und heiliget in | darumb | das er an dem selben geruget hatte von allen seinen Werken (Gen. ii. 3). Hier

Wochen später hatte er das alte Haus im gerichtlichen Aufgebot gekauft und hielt mit einem alten Gesellen und einer noch älteren Schwester seinen Einzug in dasselbe (Storm's *Böjser Basch*).

The use of *derselbe* is especially common to represent a noun after one preposition in instances where two prepositions which take different cases govern one noun: in der Kirche und um dieselbe instead of the incorrect in und um die Kirche. In case of persons the personal pronoun should be used instead of *derselbe*: mit dem Vater und ohne ihn. Good authors, however, often disregard these rules of the grammarians and place both prepositions before the noun, which is then governed by the second preposition: um und neben dem Hochaltare (Goethe). Ihre Tochter wird meine Frau mit oder gegen Ihren Willen (H. Seidel's *Lang, lang ist's her*). Sometimes the noun is repeated: mit Gott und durch Gott (Andresen's *Sprachgebrauch*, p. 193). Often in case of a pronominal object: Was in ihm und um ihn und über ihm ist (W. Wackernagel).

6. Similar to the distinction between *sein*, *ihr* and *dessen*, *deren* (see 138. 2. d) is the difference between *er*, *sie*, *es* and *derselbe*, *dieselbe*, *daselbe*. *Er* refers to the subject of the preceding sentence, or in a complex sentence to the subject of the main clause, while *derselbe* (or *dieser*) refers to some oblique case in the preceding sentence, or in a complex sentence to some word in a preceding subordinate clause or infinitive phrase, be it a nom. or an oblique case: Mein Bruder ist zu seinem Freunde gegangen. *Derselbe* (or *dieser*) will ohne ihn den Kauf nicht abschließen My brother has gone to his friend's. The latter will not close the bargain without him. Tagtäglich ritt er (Graf Veuß) aus auf seinem bekannten Schimmel, bis *derselbe* (i. e. der Schimmel) in Paris an Altersschwäche starb. Der Knabe wollte nicht sagen, daß der Hund ihn gebissen hatte, damit man *denselben* (i. e. den Hund) nicht schlagen möchte.

The personal pronoun should, however, always be used in all the above cases instead of *derselbe* or *dieser*, if no ambiguity would arise therefrom: Die Diplomaten forderten die Völker auf, demütig Gott zu preisen und ihm Lob zu singen (Raabe).

a. The oblique cases of either *er* or *derselbe* may refer to an oblique case in the preceding sentence: Mein Bruder ist zu seinem Freunde gegangen. *Er* will dann mit ihm (now more common than *demselben* or *diesem*) in die Stadt gehen. In case, however, the reference is to a thing, *derselbe* is quite common: Durch Höhe der Gebäude suchte man zu erfassen, was *denselben* an Breite und Tiefe abging. Die Pronomina demonstrativa bezeichnen einen Gegenstand dadurch, daß sie auf *denselben* hinweisen. Always so in case of a gen. which points back to some definite thing and depends upon a noun modified by an article or pronominal adj.: Die heutigen Mundarten haben die Geltung des Präteritums noch weiter eingeschränkt: weite Gebiete haben den Indikativ *denselben* auch als Form der einfachen Erzählung ganz oder teilweise eingebüßt (Behagel's *Die deutsche Sprache*, p. 324, 2nd ed.).

b. If there are two substantives in a sentence besides the subject, both of which are referred to in a following sentence or clause, it is often best to represent the one which in the following sentence or clause must be in the nom. by *dieser* and the other one by *derselbe*: Der Herr nahm dem Bedienten das Geld wieder ab, als *dieser* ihm *daselbe* gestohlen hatte, or als ihm *dieses* von *demselben* gestohlen worden war. It is best to avoid such clumsy sentences wherever ambiguity would not arise, and use the simple personal pronoun for reference to persons: Ich nehme meinen Kindern alle Bücher ab, sobald sie *selbe* nicht mehr brauchen (Rosegger).

7. In general *derselbe* is used instead of a personal pronoun for sake of euphony or harmony. The following cases of this use occur not infrequently.

a. To prevent two *sie*'s, or a *Sie* and a *sie* from coming together : Ich bitte um die Zeitung, wenn Sie dieselbe gelesen haben. Many good stylists, however, do not feel the repetition of *sie* as harsh : Anna Elisabeth . . . faßte deswegen Onkel Harres Andeutungen einerseits ernster auf als Eva, anderseits beurteilte sie sie weniger streng als der Großvater (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxi).

b. *Derselbe* is often used in a comprehensive sense to refer to some preceding word with all its modifiers, as it is felt as a more appropriate form than the light personal pronouns to represent a weighty expression or a heavy combination of words : zum täglichen Umgang wackerer Leute sowohl als zur Briefwechselung zwischen denselben. Das Erscheinen der Wörterbücher von Kluge und Heyne konnte mich nicht von meinem Vorhaben (intention to publish a dictionary) abbringen, da dieselben (i. e. die Wörterbücher von Kluge und Heyne) in ihrer Anlage ganz verschieden von dem meinigen sind (Paul's *Wörterbuch*, Preface).

8. In early N. H. G., *derselbe*, aside from its primary meaning *the same*, was often employed as a pure demonstrative or determinative = *der* or *derjenige*. See 132. I. B. a. The word gradually extended its boundaries so that it included the meanings of *der* and *er* (*sie*, *es*). The older use as a pure demonstrative or determinative has in large measure disappeared, but its use instead of the personal pronouns has increased so that it is often used without reason where a personal pronoun would be simpler and better : Kleinigkeiten, die er von Marianen erhalten oder derselben (= *ihr*) geraubt hatte (Goethe). Der Prinz Karl ist von seinem Unwohlsein so weit wieder hergestellt, daß derselbe (= *er*) nicht mehr das Bett zu hüten genötigt ist (*Kölnische Zeitung*). At the present time grammarians quite generally censure this free use of *derselbe*, and urge that the simple forms *der* and *er* be used where it is possible. The best usage of our time has been given in the preceding articles.

9. Except after prepositions the uninflected *es* has, differing from other personal pronouns, a wide field of usefulness. It is used :

a. Like *dieß* (128. A. a) to express identity : Es ist eine schöne Blume. Es (they) sind schöne Blumen. Sind es (they) Ihre Kinder ? Es ist mein Bruder.

b. As object in various constructions, especially referring to some fact or thing already mentioned or more or less understood, or to a condition of things : Marie ist hier. Ich weiß es. Ich kann es nicht länger mit ansehen. Ich hielt es endlich nicht länger aus. Er bringt es weit He is getting along in the world. Machen Sie sich's bequem Make yourself comfortable. Er macht es zu arg He carries things too far. Er läßt es gehen, wie's Gott gefällt He lets things go as it pleases God.

c. As a predicate, representing an idea already expressed ; see 129. 2. C. (4).

d. As a grammatical and anticipative subject ; see 251. I. 2. A and B, and II. B.

e. As an anticipative object ; see 185. A. I. 3 and 272. C. a.

f. As indefinite subject in the various impersonal constructions described in 219.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

(Compare with 218.)

142. 1. A personal pronoun can also show that the action which goes forth from the subject bends back upon that subject, and is then called a reflexive pronoun: Ich lobe mich I praise myself. Special pronominal forms to show this reflexive action are wanting except in the third person, where sich *himself, herself, itself, themselves* is used for all genders and both numbers and for both dat. and acc.: er lobt sich; sie lobt sich; sie loben sich they praise themselves; er spricht immer nur von sich; sie spricht immer nur von sich, &c. For the gen. of the third person and the gen., dat., and acc. of the first and second persons, the reflexives are identical in form with the personal pronouns: du lobst dich; wir loben uns; ihr lobt euch, &c. The reflexive by its very nature has no nom., as it is always an *object*, either of a verb or a prep., or dependent upon some adjective. Reflexive verbs in German usually take an acc. object, but certain verbs, contrary to the English idiom, take an object in the dat. or gen.: Du lobst dich, but du spottest deiner, du schmeichelst dir. To the gen. of the third person the indeclinable selbst is usually added, or otherwise it is ambiguous: Er spottet seiner selbst. Without selbst it would mean, He is ridiculing *him* (some one else), but with selbst *himself*.

a. In early N.H.G. there was no dative of the reflexive, its place being supplied by the dative of the personal pronoun, which usage occasionally occurs as late as the classical period, and in popular language is still found: Wer sich Knall und Fall, ihm (= sich) selbst zu leben, nicht entschließen kann, der lebet andrer Elav auf immer (Lessing's *Nathan*, 2, 9).

b. In dialect sich is often used also with reference to a pronoun in the first or second person: Weil wir uns scheuen, das Neb' zu haben, was wir uns eigentlich zu sagen hätten und worüber wir sich ausreden sollten (Anzengruber's *Schandfleck*, chap. xviii).

2. A. The reflexive usually refers to the subject of the proposition in which it stands. The Germans also use a reflexive of the third person after prepositions if the reference is to the subject, while in English a personal pronoun is used: Er (ſie) hat Geld bei ſich He (she) has money with him (her).

a. In prepositional phrases modifying a noun a personal pronoun of the third person must be used according to C if the phrase is equivalent to a subordinate clause and the reference is to the subject of the principal proposition: Diethelm traf die Brüder **mitten im Gespräch über ihn** (Auerbach) [= als ſie über ihn ſprachen], but Alle Unzufriedenheit des Menſchen iſt **Frucht ſeines Widerſpruchs mit ſich ſelbſt** (Thümmel) [= Frucht des Widerſpruchs, den er mit ſich ſelbſt findet].

B. If there is a reference in the subordinate clause to the subject of the principal proposition, a personal pronoun should be used: Er belobte die Soldaten, die ſich gehorſam gegen ihn (referring to the subject of the principal proposition) bewieſen hatten.

C. In participial, adjective, prepositional, and infinitive constructions which have the force of a subordinate clause, the reflexive

refers to the subject of the contracted clause: Wir erblickten einen Mann, der sich schnell entfernte. Wir erblickten einen sich schnell entfernenden Mann. Wir baten ihn, sich zu entfernen. Soll ich **diese an sich verständliche Regel** (= diese Regel, die an sich verständlich ist) wiederholen? If there is a reference in the contracted clause to the subject of the principal proposition, a personal pronoun must of course be used: Er bat uns, ihn zu besuchen. Sie trug ein ihr vollkommen ähnliches Kind auf dem Arme.

a. If there is no *zu* before the dependent infinitive, usage makes distinctions:

(1) If the infinitive has no subject, or has passive force, the reflexive refers to the subject of the principal proposition: Er hörte über sich schmähen He heard some one talking abusively about him. Er hörte sich von seinem Freunde rufen He heard his friend call him, lit. He heard himself called by his friend.

(2) If the infinitive has a subject and is active, it usually takes a personal pronoun as a reflexive object referring to the subject of the principal proposition: Es fühlt der Mensch mit bleichem Beben den Tod ihm fügen im Genick (Lenau). After *lassen* we more commonly find a reflexive here: Lassen Sie sich diese Tropfen Bluts nicht reuen (Goethe).

This construction, however, is in general not common and often not used at all, so that the English-speaking student should be on his guard. Thus we cannot say Er hörte seinen Freund sich rufen. Nor can we say Er hörte seinen Freund ihn rufen. We must avoid the construction, or express this idea by the construction in (1). A reflexive referring to the subject of the principal proposition can, however, be freely used if it depends upon a preposition: Er sah einen Fremden neben sich stehen, but not Er sah einen Fremden sich näher treten. In the latter case we could say: Er sah einen Fremden, der ihm näher trat. A reflexive verb, however, can be used as an infinitive where the reflexive refers to the subject of the infinitive: Die Stadt sah den Hunger nebst seinem ganzen Gefolge mit schrecklichen Schritten sich nähern (Goethe). Er sah den Vitellus sich über ihn (with reference to the subject of the sentence) beugen (Raabe's *Der Lar*, p. 220).

143. The indeclinable words *selbst* and *selber* *self* are much used to emphasize personal and reflexive pronouns and also nouns: ich selbst or selber, wir selbst or selber. Er ist die Ehrlichkeit selbst. Er lobt sich selbst or selber, but not without the reflexive, as in er lobt selbst. Selbst may, however, be used alone after the prep. *von* and in a few other idiomatic expressions: Die Mühle geht nicht von selbst. Selbst essen macht satt If you want to get satiated you must do your own eating. Selbst ist der Mann If you want to have a thing done well, do it yourself. Selbst eingetrockt, selbst ausgegessen As you have brewed, so you must drink. Selbstgebackenes Brot home-made bread. Also in paying back an insult: Er schalt ihn einen Betrüger. „Selbst Betrüger!“ gab der Bescholtene zurück.

Selbst and selber are in fact not reflexives but determinatives. As they, however, are almost always used in connection with a noun or pronoun, especially a reflexive pronoun, they have been treated here.

Note. As an adverb *selbst* (not *selber*) may stand before or after a noun or pronoun, usually with the meaning *even*, taking a weak accent when it precedes the noun or pronoun and a strong one when it follows it: *Die Ermahnung selbst des Vaters* (or *des Vaters selbst*) *fruchtete nichts*.

THE RECIPROCAL PRONOUN,

144. When the pronoun shows that the action of the verb is mutual between two or more persons, it is called a reciprocal pronoun. The following reciprocal forms are used:

a. The reciprocal pronoun for the dat. and acc. of all genders and persons is *einander* *each other, one another*: *Wir loben einander*; *sie loben einander*; *sie sprechen von einander*.

b. For the gen. *einer* (*eine*) . . . *des andern* (*der andern*) are used: *Sie gedenken einer des andern* *They* (lady and gentleman, or two gentlemen) *are thinking of each other*. *Sie gedenken eine der andern* *They* (two ladies) *are thinking of each other*.

c. For the dat. and acc. the reflexive pronouns are often used for the reciprocal when no ambiguity can arise: *Ihr seht euch oft* *You see one another often*. *Die Eheleute sind sich* (dat. = *einander*) *treu und lieben sich* (acc. = *einander*) *innig*. *Sie lieben sich* is ambiguous, as *sich* may mean *each other* or *themselves*, but by the addition of *selbst* or *selber* the reflexive idea is brought out, and *sich* may be changed to *einander*, or *einander* may be added to *sich*, to make the reciprocal idea clear: *Sie lieben sich selbst* *They love themselves*, but *Sie lieben einander*, or sometimes *sich einander* *They love one another*.

Only when the reciprocal depends immediately upon a verb or an adjective, as in the first sentence, can it be replaced by a reflexive, hence after prepositions the reciprocal form is as a rule *einander*: *Sie saßen neben einander*, not *neben sich*. After the prepositions *unter* and *über*, however, either *einander* or a reflexive can be used: *Wir wollen das unter einander* (or *unter uns*) *abmachen*. *Sie machten das unter einander* (or *unter sich*) *ab*. *Sie fielen über einander* (or *über sich*) *her*.

Note. In dialect *sich* is often used reciprocally instead of *uns* or *einander*: *Na, mir* [*wir*] *können sich net heiraten* (Anzengruber's *Jungferngift*, 4, 7).

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

145. The indefinites have been treated under adjectives, as most of them can be used as an ordinary adj., or used alone substantively. The following are more like real independent pronouns:

a. **jedermann** *everybody* has only the gen. sing. in *s*, the dat. and acc. being like the nom.

b. **jemand** *somebody*, declined: N. *jemand*, G. *jemand(e)s*, D. *jemand*, or *jemandem* (new str. form, but common), or *jemanden* (see 106. *Note* 3; now rare), A. *jemand* or *jemanden* (new but common); very common in combination with *anders*: *jemand anders* or *anderer* *somebody else*, dat. *jemand(em) anders*, or *jemand(em) anderen*, acc. *jemand(en) anders* or *jemand(en) anderen*. In early N.H.G. the indeclinable form *jemand's* is also found; see Numbers xvi. 40; Leviticus xxi. 17.

Note 1. In these cases *anders* is a dependent gen. and should as such remain unchanged, but according to common interpretation it is often construed as a neut. adjective-substantive in apposition with *jemand*. As there lies in the neuter gender a vague or general conception, it is often as here employed in German as the masc. is in English, to make a general reference, applying to either males or females. *Jemand anders* is sometimes, perhaps, now more commonly, replaced by *jemand* and (*er*) *rer*, as the masc. is also as well as the neut. used to represent both genders. When any other adj. follows *jemand* it may, like *anders*, be treated as an adjective-substantive having a double construction: *jemand Wißfremdes* or now more commonly *Wißfremder* somebody, an entire stranger. Wenn sie mit jemand Erwachsenem sprach (Rosegger).

Note 2. The str. and wk. forms of *jemand* (from *je* + *Mann*) show the influence of the adj. declension.

Note 3. The adverb *irgend* is often used in connection with *jemand* to increase the indefiniteness: Wir werden wohl irgend jemanden antreffen, der uns Bescheid gibt.

c. niemand nobody, inflected exactly like *jemand*.

Note 1. It has the same fluctuating construction of the following adjective-substantive: Niemand *anders* or *anderer* no one else. Das wird niemand Rechtschaffener (or now less commonly *Rechtschaffenes*) tun. Niemand Unberufener (Rosegger). So lang man niemand Leuten hat sterben sehen, glaubt man nicht recht an den Tod (Marriot).

Note 2. In dialect various forms occur: *neamb*, *niemer*, *niemerb*. Compare *d*, **Note 2**.

d. man or einer one (as in *one says* = they say). The oblique cases of *man* are replaced by those of *einer*: N. *man*, G. *eines*, D. *einem*, A. *einen*: So was erinnert einen an etwas, woran man nicht erinnern will; eines Haus und Hof one's house and land. Das wird einem sauer. Wenn man (or *einer*) Reisen gemacht hat, so kann man (or *er* if the antecedent is *einer*) etwas erzählen. The personal pronoun referring to *man*, as can be seen in the preceding example and in the first, is *man*, but *er* if it refers to *einer*, and the corresponding possessive of both *man* and *einer* is *sein*: Man or *einer* kann seinen eigenen Kopf nicht essen.

Note 1. In popular language *einer* is often used with the force of *jemand*. It also frequently indicates that the person referred to excels in something, often in something bad: Das soll einmal einer nachmachen Let somebody imitate that if he can. Er lügt wie einer He lies equal to anybody, lies like a trooper. Das ist ei'ner! He's a *fine* fellow! (ironical).

Note 2. In dialect *man* often assumes the masc. form *mer*: Es kann ja ein' Menschen recht sein, daß mer ihm merken laßt, mer weiß, was er für a Mensch is (Anzengruber's *Das vierte Gebot*, I, 12).

e. wer (for declension see 147. 1), which is used for an interrogative and also relative pronoun, is moreover not infrequently in colloquial language used as an indefinite = *jemand* or *einer*: Ich glaube, wenn mein Bruder Alfred stirbt, oder vielleicht auch wer, der dir noch näher steht, &c. (Fontane's *Unwiederbringlich*, chap. vi). Ich habe auch keine Geheimnisse — wie wer anderer (Schnitzler's *Liebelei*, p. 68). Michael künnte sich wenig um mich — dem mußt' du erst klar machen kommen, daß ich auch wer bin (Sudermann's *Es lebe das Leben*, p. 37).

Note 1. A following adjective-substantive has the same double construction as after *jemand* and *niemand* (*b, c*, above): Schmidts haben Besuch; 's ist wer Fremdes da. Das Ding wird wer anderer gemacht haben (Rosegger).

Note 2. From the indef. *wer* have come the interrogative and relative *wer*, in both of which the former indefinite force is still felt.

f. etwas (often contracted to *was*) *something, some, somewhat, what*, uninflected: Er hat etwas getan. Soll ich Ihnen etwas von diesem Sammelbraten zukommen lassen? Er ist etwas (somewhat) von

einem Gelehrten. Ich will dir was sagen I'll tell you what. Note that the negative *not anything* is rendered, not by nicht etwas, but by nichts: Haben Sie nichts von Ihrem Freunde gehört?

Note. When a neut. adjective-substantive depends upon etwas, it was formerly in the partitive gen., but this usage has now given place to the appositional construction, the adjective-substantive agreeing with etwas: etwas Gutes something good, von etwas Gutem. Es ist etwas Wahres (once felt as a gen., but now felt as a neut. nom. in apposition with etwas) daran. Ich kann vor etwas Schöнем Stundenlang stehen. Die Scham brennt Majcha auf den Wangen, nach rechts und links blickt sie scheu und ängstlich, etwas Schrecklichen (old weak gen. to avoid the strong form in -es, which is not distinguished from the nom. and acc. in -es) gewärtig (Schubert's *Boris Lensky*, xi). Ich muß dich noch wegen etwas anderen (weak gen.) or anderem (as the prep. also governs the dat.) fragen. Only rarely is the partitive gen. of the adjective-substantive now found here, but the following example from Hauptmann's *Vor Sonnenaufgang*, p. 90, proves that it is not entirely extinct: Du schwagest von alter Freundschaft und so was Gutes (106. *Note* 2).

g. nichts nothing, uninflected: Gott hat die Welt aus nichts erschaffen. It is avoided in the gen.

Note 1. If a neut. adjective-substantive depends upon it, the same appositional construction is found as after etwas (see *f. Note*): Wissen Sie nichts Neues? Do you know nothing new? Kannst du dich mit nichts Besserm beschäftigen?

Note 2. It was once inflected as a few set expressions still show. The old nom. and acc. form nicht (contracted from *ni wicht* = nicht ein Wicht, *not a thing, not a wight*) is used in a number of set expressions, followed by the partitive gen.: Hier ist meines Bleibens nicht (nom.) *It's too warm (fig.) for me here, or I can't stay here.* Wenn ich mit Menschen und mit Engelnungen redete und hätte der Liebe nicht (acc.) Though I speak with the tongues of men and of angels and have not charity. The real gen. still survives in nichtswürdig *contemptible*, lit. *worthy of nothing*. In the expression zu nichte machen *to destroy*, it is dat. with the usual dat. case ending. The dat. form in mit nichten *not at all* has arisen from a contraction of the old doubled form, used for emphasis: mit nichte n(icht). The gen. nichts was formerly much used as a partitive gen. depending upon nicht (nom. or acc.), *nichtes nicht nothing at all, lit. nothing of nothing*. Later when nicht was felt as an adverb the gen. nichts remained as the regular nom. or acc. of the pronoun. This change of construction was facilitated by the fact that nichts remained as an old gen. in a number of set expressions where it was construed as a nom. or acc.: Nichts (old gen. felt as a nom.) gebricht (formerly impers. verb with gen.) *Nothing is lacking to us.* Or vergißt (formerly with gen., now usually with acc.) nichts (an old gen. felt as an acc.). The old acc. nicht has now become the regular form for the adverbial negative *not*. This adverbial negative is in fact the adverbial acc. of degree (amount), and was in an earlier period only added to strengthen the negative en or ne: (M.H.G.) *er enist niht guot* He is not good, lit. He is not good, not in any respect or thing. Later the en dropped out and left to nicht the office of negative.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

146. The interrogative pronouns are: wer who; was what; welcher, welche, welches which, what; was für einer, was für eine, was für ein(e)s what kind.

147. I. Wer is declined:

Masc. and Fem.	Neuter.
N. wer <i>who</i>	was <i>what</i>
G. wessen, wes (poet.) <i>whose</i>	wessen, wes <i>of what</i>
D. wem (masc. and fem.), wer (fem.; see B. b) <i>to whom</i>	wo(r) + prep. (see C. b); was (see C. a)
A. wen <i>whom</i>	was <i>what</i>

A. The neut. gen. *was*, still common in early N.H.G., is now little used except in the adverbial compounds *weßhalb* for what reason, *weßwegen* on what account, why, also in attributive use, as explained in E, below.

The corrupted form *wessent*, instead of the more correct *wessen*, is still quite common in composition with the prepositions *wegen* and *um* — *willen*, where the reference is to a person: *wessentwegen*, *um wessentwillen*. Ex.: *Um wessentwillen quälen wir uns denn überhaupt mit solchen Sachen?* (Fontane's *Stechlin*, XI. p. 145). As *wessen* is so often used with reference to a person, it is avoided with reference to a thing. The colloquial language employs here the acc. *was* instead of the more correct but ambiguous *wessen*: *Wegen was hast du dich so aufgeregt?* See also C. a, below.

a. In inquiring after an individual in a group of two or more we may use *welch-* or *wer*: *welches* (according to 148. a), or *welcher*, or *wer von beiden ist Herr Schmid?* *Welcher von Ihnen?*, but also the gen. if the definite article or a pronominal is used: *Welcher der beiden Brüder?* *Wer* in connection with *von* is also used where we employ attributive *what*: *Sie war gekommen, um den Schwestern die wichtige Nachricht zu überbringen, wer am morgigen Neujahrstage von jungen Mädchen (what young ladies) nun mit aller Bestimmtheit bei Hofe vorgestellt werden würde* (Ompeda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XXXVII). Although the gen. of *welch-* was common here in early N.H.G., it is now replaced by the gen. of *wer*: *Nu in der Auferstehung | wenn sie auferstehen | welches (in revised editions wessen) weib wird sie sein vnter jnen?* (Mark xii. 23).

B. a. The masc. dat. *wem* usually refers only to living beings, but Lessing in his *Nathan* (5, 6) employs it also as a neutral form, expressing uncertainty as to whether the reference is to a person or a thing: (Recha) *Allein — allein — das geht zu weit! Dem kann ich nichts entgegensetzen, nicht Geduld, nicht Überlegung, nichts!* (Sittah) *Was [geht zu weit]? Wem [kannst du nichts entgegensetzen]? This usage is common also in colloquial language. In the same way the gen. wessen can be used as a neutral form.*

b. The fem. dat. *wer*, though not usually given by grammarians, is occasionally found in good authors: *Von Helios gezeugt? von wer geboren?* (Goethe) *Begotten of Helios? Born by what mother?* *Da du so eine Art Bruder von ihr bist — Von ihr? Von wer?* (Wilbrandt's *Die Maler*, 3, 3) Since you are a kind of brother to her — To her? To whom? Also other ways of making the gender clear occur: (Carl) *Er gibt Singstunde? Wem?* (Isolde) *Der.* (Carl) *Wem der?* (Ernst Rosmer's *Dämmerung*, Act 3). *Festgeregnet! . . . Wem und welcher steigt nicht bei diesem Worte eine gespenstische Erinnerung in der Seele auf?* (Raabe's *Keltische Knochen*).

C. The dat. of the neut. does not usually occur except in connection with a preposition, in which case the form is either:

a. That of the acc., not infrequently in the classical authors and with ever increasing frequency in the language of our time, which is in general becoming averse to adverbial compounds (see b): *Zu was die Pöse?* (Goethe). *Bestellt, gnädiger Kaiser? zu was?* (Wildenbruch's *Kaiser Heinrich*, 2, 18). *Zu was soll der eine was voraus haben?* (Halbe's *Haus Rosenhagen*, I. p. 43). *Brigitta: Sie liegt, weint, schwört: sie müsse ihn erlösen. Gottfried: Von was?* (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, I. p. 33). In colloquial language and dialect *was* is often employed after prepositions and verbs without respect to the cases which they usually govern, in order to make the thought clear: *wegen was* (as *wegen wessen* might mean *on account of whom*; not *weßwegen*, as it has adverbial force=*why*). *Was wohnte (elsewhere with dat.) er bei?* See also A, above.

b. Or especially in choice language the adverbial compound *wo* (or *wer* before a vowel) + a preposition: *womit'* with what, *wovon'* of what, *worin'* in what, &c. The prepositions governing the acc. also form compounds with *wo(r)* in the same way: *worü'ber* about what, *wofür'* for what, *worein'* (the one prep. in changes its form in these adverbial compounds to express the acc. relation, becoming *ein*) into what, *werum'* (more commonly in this case

um was) concerning what, &c. These compounds cannot be freely formed, but occur only in case of the prepositions enumerated in 141. 5. B. But also here there is a growing aversion to the adverbial forms: „Rebe, | damit wir uns verständigen.“ „Über was?“ (Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, 3, 1).

D. The German like the English has no special form for the plural, but differs from the English in that the verb also remains sing., except in case of *wer* and *was* as predicate in connection with the verb *to be*: *Wer sind die Damen da?* *Ich weiß nicht, wer sie sind.* *Was sind die Dinge da?* *Das sind Blumen.* But as subject: *Wer war da?* *Who was or were there?* A general indef. pl. idea can be brought out by placing directly after *wer* (or *was*), or several words removed, the adverbial *alles*: *Wer kommt denn alles?* *Who all are coming?* *Ich weiß nicht, wen alles er eingeladen hat, or wem alles er eine Einladung geschickt hat.* *Was man doch nicht alles hört!* Well, I declare, what strange things one hears! In inquiries after definite persons or things, the sing. verb with *wer* or *was* alone is used, as usually the connection will show whether one is speaking of one person or thing, or of more than one. Some form of *welcher*, *e*, *es* should be used if some noun or pronoun can be understood: *Wer hat das gebracht?* — *Zwei Schüler.* — *Welche (Schüler)?* *Wer hat das gebracht?* — *Ein Schüler.* — *Welcher (Schüler)?* Thus in German *wer* usually introduces an inquiry of a more general and *welcher* of a more individual nature.

E. *Was* was formerly often followed by a dependent noun in the partitive gen.: *was Dancks habt jr davon (davon)?* (Luke vi. 34). This construction is still occasionally found: *Aber was hast du nun Vorteils davon, Lieber?* (Lienhard's *Till Eulenspiegel*, 3). It is still the regular construction in case of adjective-substantives: *Was ist Gutes dabei?* What good is there in it? In case of these adjective-substantives all feeling for the genitive is lost, and the form is regarded as a nom. or acc. neut. in apposition with *was*, as in similar cases after *etwas* (see 145. f. Note).

Except in case of adjective-substantives simple apposition is now little used, although more common earlier in the period, and is usually replaced by the appositional construction introduced by *für* or by the construction with *welch*: *Was gibt es Vorzügliches im heutigen Konzert?* but rarely *Was was lieblichem Bezeigen | gab sie sich mir ganz zu eigen!* (Canitz), now *Was was für einem lieblichen, or welch lieblichem, &c.* *Ich, was ist's ein Mann!* (Goethe's *Egmont*, 1), now *Was ist's für ein Mann!* So *weiß ich doch nun auch, auf was [now was für eine, or welche] Art sich die Teufel danken* (Schiller). *Was hast du hier [now usually + für] Geschäfte [in apposition with was or possibly a pl. partitive gen.]?* (Storm's *Ein Fest auf Haderslevhuus*, p. 258). In certain set expressions, however, the simple appositional construction has become established: *Was Wunder!* (the gen. here is also used: *Was Wunders, daß unser Dichter für diese in fast täglichem Verkehr vor ihm entfalteten Vorzüge nicht unempfindlich blieb* — Johannes Scherr's *Schiller*, II. chap. iii) *what wonder!* *Was Teufel!* *Was der Teufel!* (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Verschollen*). *Was Heiser!* *Was Geistes Kind ist er?* Of what mettle is he? *Was Namens, Standes, Wehner's seid ihr?* (H. v. Kleist). In some of these examples *was* or *wes* is used almost or quite as an attributive adjective, and earlier in the period even assumed in the dat. of the fem. the form of a strong adjective: *Aus waser* (in revised editions *was für*) *machst thust du das?* (Matt. xxi. 23). In English, *what* has, indeed, become an attributive adjective in many cases, and can be used freely as such, while in German the appositional construction has in general been retained, and is usually, aside from certain groups described above, clearly marked as such by the *für* preceding the appositive. The construction with *for* is also found in older English: *What is he for a fool that betroths himself to unquietness?* (Shakespeare's *Much Ado*, 1, 3). In dialect and colloquial language the development of usage here lies in the direction of the English, in that *was* is often used attributively: *Ne, was'n Sur, was'n Sur!* (Adalbert Meinhardt's *Allerleirauh*, p. 71) for the literary *was für ein Sur!* or *welch ein Sur!* For other examples see 134. 2. d.

Wer was in M.H.G., like *was*, followed by a dependent partitive gen., as in *wer herren*, which is now replaced by a prep. construction, *wer unter den Herren*, as described in A. a, above. Another stage of development, the appositional or attributive construction, as in case of *was*, is found in early N.H.G.: *Wer Künstler* (originally gen. pl.) *möcht's erdenken?* (Spee's *Trutznachtigal*, 91, 196). This old attributive use of *wer* *what* survives, in case the following word is a pronoun: „*Er ist nicht da?*“ „*Wer er?*“ (Suttner's *Daniela Dormes*, III). (Carl) *Er gibt Singstunde?* *Wem?* (Isolde) *Der.* (Carl) *Wem der?* (Ernst Rosmer's *Dämmerung*, Act 3). Compare *Es ist kein Er*; *es ist eine Sie* (Raabe's *Frau Salome*, XI).

2. *Wer* and *was* are used in questions direct and indirect: *Wen meinen Sie?* *Ich weiß nicht, wen Sie meinen.*

a. *Wer* can be limited by a relative clause: *Wer, der es nicht mit Augen gesehen hat, vermag sich dies geheimnisvolle Gebiet auch nur vorzustellen?* (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, III. p. 133) *What person who*, &c.

b. *Was* is much used colloquially after the statement of an opinion or idea to ask for a confirmation of the same from the person addressed: *Hübsche Straße, was?* *It's a fine street, isn't it?* *Ich liebe schnelle Entschlüsse—Sie auch—was?*

c. Sometimes *was* is used adverbially in the meaning *why*: *Was lachst du?* *Why do you laugh?* It is also used sometimes like *wie how*: *Was sind Sie glücklich!* *How happy you are!*

148. *Welcher, welche, welches which, what*, used adjectively or substantively; for inflection see 134. 1. Ex.: *Welches Buch ist das Ihrige und welches ist das feine?*

a. *Welches* used with identifying force is treated like *dies* (see 128. A. a): *Welches ist länger, der Bleistift oder die Feder?* *Welches ist der jüngste Sohn?* *Welches sind Ihre Brüder?* *Welches sind die Ergebnisse dieses Sommersemesters?* (Wilbrandt's *Franz*, II). Also in indirect questions: *Welches die individuellen Ursachen von Raabes Wendung zum Pessimismus gewesen, läßt sich einstweilen nicht feststellen* (A. Bartels, *Deutsche Dichtung*, p. 56).

149. *Was für einer, eine, ein(e)s what kind*; for inflection see 134. 2.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

150. There are no independent forms for the relative pronouns, but as such are used: the demonstratives *der, die, das* (151) *who, which*, or the interrogatives *welcher, welche, welches* (152) *who, which*; the interrogatives *wer who, whoever* (155 and 156), *was which, what, whatsoever* (153. 1; 157); the adverbial compounds *worin, worunter*, &c. (153. 2. A), or *darin, darunter*, &c. (153. 2. B); the adverbs *wo, woher, wohin* (153. 3. A), *wie* (153. 3. B and D. (1)), *als, wenn, wann, da* (153. 3. C), *so viel* (153. 4); *so* (153. 5); also *daß* (153. 3. C. e), *dergleichen* (153. 3. D. (3)), *derselbe* (153. 6), *was für ein* (153. 7), *wo* (153. 8), *als* (153. 8).

They have in course of time developed a different word-order from the original demonstratives and interrogatives and now require the verb to stand at the end of the clause: *diejenigen Fürsten sind die besten, welche mit Aufopferung ihrer selbst des Volkes Wohl befördern.*

a. In early N.H.G. and still later in the classical period als often preceded *der*, *welcher*, or a relative adverb to make it more prominent: Er wollte von den hohen, hehlgeschliffenen Schrittschuhen nichts wissen, sondern empfahl die niedrigen, flachgeschliffenen, friesländischen, als welche zum Schnelllaufen die dienlichsten seien (Goethe). So behalten die Prüfer Muße, sich in einzelne Kleinigkeiten durch und durch einzulassen, als woran mir hauptsächlich gelegen ist (Bürger). This als still occurs occasionally: [Er] sagte laut und feierlich-grimmig: „Es lebe Alerius der Dreizehnte“ — als worauf sich etwas sehr Kurioses ereignete (Raabe's *Eulenspingsten*, chap. xvi).

151. I. *Der*, *die*, *das* are inflected as the substantive forms of the demon. *der*, *die*, *das* (129. I) except in the gen., where the forms *dessen* (masc. and neut. sing.), *deren* (fem. sing. and pl. for all genders) are used.

a. The forms of *der* are unaccented, thus differing from those of the demon. *der*; but the vowels except before *ff* are long and cannot be contracted, thus differing from those of the def. art. and resembling those of the demonstr.

b. In composition with the prepositions *wegen* *on account of*, *um* — *willen* *for the sake of*, *halb(en)* *on account of*, are the following corrupted gen. forms: *dessent*, gen. masc. and neut.; *derent* or *deret*, gen. fem. sing. and gen. pl. for all genders: *der* Mann, *um dessentwillen*; *die* Frau, *um derentwillen*, &c. There is a pronounced tendency to restore the correct form: Jenes Vorrecht, *um dessentwillen* sich einst Bayern unterworfen hatte (Giesebrecht); das Weib, *um dessentwillen* ich Jahre lang alles getan und gesprochen und geopfert habe (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, II. p. 172). Auf jenem schönen Turm habe ich *der* das Wiederkommen versprochen, *um derenwillen* ich jetzt diese weite Reise mache (Storm's *St. Jürgen*). Das also war *die*, für die sie drangegeben, *um derenwillen* sie um ihr Leben betrogen und bestohlen worden war (Wildenbruch's *Vice-Mama*).

The preceding forms refer to definite antecedents. When the reference is to the thought contained in a sentence, the short gen. forms *wes*, or now less commonly *des*, are used in composition with *wegen* and *halb(en)*: Vollkommenheit ist ein nie zu erreichendes Ziel, *weshalb* (or now less commonly *deshalb*) so wenige danach streben.

If *wegen* precedes the relative, the regular uncorrupted long gen. forms are used: Sie passen zu dem dreibeinigen Halkunten, *wegen dessen* wir hier versammelt sind! (Lienhard's *Till Eulenspiegel*, I).

c. The forms *dessen* and *deren* are sometimes inflected by the authors of our time like strong adjectives, when they stand before a masc. or a neut. noun in the dat. sing., although they are in fact the gen. forms of the relative pronoun: Sie sehen wieder daraus, *das* man sich von einer Frau, an deren Wohlergehen man Interesse nimmt, keine acht Tage entfernen darf (Boy-Ed). See 129. 2. A. c.

d. Instead of the gen. forms *dessen* and *deren* the older forms *des* (formerly and sometimes still written *desi*) and *der* still occasionally occur, especially in poetry: Wo bist du, Faust, *des* Stimme mir erklang (Goethe's *Faust*, erster Teil, Nacht). Die Krone, *der* mein Fürst mich würdig achtere (id., *Tasso*, 2, 3). Die Züchtigkeit, *der* er sich freute (Ludwig's *Zwischen Himmel und Erde*, III). Earlier in the period the form for the fem. gen. sing. and gen. pl. was either *deren* or *derer*. Later *derer* became restricted to demonstrative use, but survivals of the older usage occur occasionally: Das dauerte wohl eine Minute, während *derer* ich mich nicht zu regen, kaum zu atmen, wagte (Spielhagen's *Was will das werden*, I. chap. xi). Einige bängliche Minuten, während *derer* Frau Curtis die Augen geschlossen hielt (id., *Ein neuer Pharaon*, p. 13).

e. The early N.H.G. occasional long form *deren* (fem. dat. sing.) has entirely given way to the short form *der*, as there seemed a desire, as in case of the

demonstrative *der*, to distinguish, contrary to usage elsewhere in the inflection of fem. adjective forms, between the gen. and dat. sing.: O Fürstin, deren (now *der*) sich ein solcher Fürst verbunden (Weckherlin). The older short form *den* (dat. pl.) is now entirely replaced by *denen*.

2. *Der* is not used:

a. Adjectively, in which function it is replaced by forms of *welcher*: Er sagte „guten Tag,“ welchen Gruß sie freundlich erwiderte.

b. The relatives *das* and *welches* were earlier in the period employed like the identifying *das* (129. 2. C. (1)) as the subject of the clause, remaining unchanged for all genders and numbers: Unter andern hat er eine Sündflut gemalt, das etwas Einziges ist (Goethe). Die Luftkanäle anzubringen, welches kleine Röhren von gebrannter Erde waren (id.). Dieß Buch nannte man den Shakspeare, welches der Verfasser desselben war (G. Keller). These relatives are now usually inflected and agree with the antecedent. The older usage is still sometimes found when the relative is used in a collective sense: Ich kenne den Bruder und die Schwester, welches beides (or more commonly *welche beide*) sehr achtungswürdige Personen sind (D. Sanders). Different is the case where the relative is the predicate; see 153. I. (3), towards end of art.

3. On the other hand, in the substantive relation *der* is more frequent than *welcher* both in the literary language and in common conversation. The leading points as to use are as follows:

A. *Der*, not *welcher*, is used in the gen. sing. and pl. if the gen. stands before the noun upon which it depends: Das Haus in der Kaiserstraße, dessen Besitzer wir kennen, ist feil, but Die alte Mauer, innerhalb deren er jetzt nur ein Teil der Stadt liegt, wird bald abgebrochen werden.

It should be carefully noted that *dessen* and *deren*, differing from the English *of which*, *of whom*, must always precede the noun upon which they depend, and that the definite article before the governing noun is then dropped: das Gebäude, dessen Fenster geschlossen sind *the buildings the windows of which are shut*.

a. In adjective use *welcher* must be used even if the gen. precedes the noun upon which it depends: Denk an Goethe, welches Dichters Werke dir oft empfohlen wurden.

b. Earlier in the period also the gen. of *welcher* could stand before the governing noun: Lieber | verderbe den nicht mit deiner Speise | um welches willen Christus gestorben ist (Rom. xiv. 15). Denn ein Weib hatte von ihm gehört | welcher Töchterlein einen unsaubern Geist hatte (Mark vii. 25). Eine so edle Tat . . . wie die ist, um welcher willen ich gefangen sitze (Goethe's *Götz*, 4, 2).

B. *Der* is also usually employed when the relative refers to an interrogative or personal pronoun, or a noun in the vocative: Wer, der es nicht mit Augen gesehen hat, vermag sich dies geheimnisvolle Gebiet auch nur vorzustellen? (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, III. p. 133). Er, der nur | gewohnt ist zu befehlen und zu tun, | kennt nicht die Kunst, von weitem ein Gespräch | nach seiner Absicht langsam fein zu lenken (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 1, 2). Ha, Herr Graf, der Sie nicht nach Massa wollten (Lessing's *Emilia*, 3, 2).

a. If a personal pronoun referring to a vocative or repeating a personal pronoun of the first or second person already mentioned stands after the relative, which is very commonly the case when the relative is the subject of the verb, *der* is usually employed, and

the verb must agree with the antecedent in person: unser Vater, der du bist im Himmel; du, die du alle Wunden heilest thou (friendship) who dost heal all wounds. The pronoun of the first or second person to which reference is made may be contained in a possessive: Und tröste dich an meinem größern Jammer, | die ich getan, wo du nur unterlassen (Grillparzer's *Medea*, 5).

Note. When such sentences are transferred to indirect discourse, the personal pronoun may be allowed to remain standing after the relative, although it as well as its antecedent has become a third person in the indirect statement: Wie kannst du, die du es selbst gesehen hast, das bezweifeln? becomes Er wunderte sich, wie sie, die sie es selbst gesehen habe, das bezweifeln könne. The personal pronoun of the first or second person to which reference is made may be contained in a possessive: (independent form of indirect discourse; see 172. A. a) Sie hatte einmal gelesen: „Nichts ist ohne Zweck.“ Aber was war ihr Zweck? Ihr Zweck, die sie doch keine Blüte trieb. Sie war doch eine tote Frucht, sie war Tante (G. Ompteda's *Cäcilie von Sarryn*, chap. xii).

b. Sometimes the personal pronoun after the relative is dropped in the cases described in *a*, the verb, however, agreeing in the same manner with the antecedent in person: Unselige, die [du] mir aus deinen Höhen, | ein Meteor, verderblich niederstreift (Goethe). Sometimes the personal pronoun is dropped and the verb goes over into the third person: Was kann ich tun, der selber hilflos ist? (Schiller).

The verb cannot of course be controlled by the relative if some other word is subject: O du, den ich suchte von meiner Kindheit an.

The verb is in the third person if the pronoun to which the subject refers is in the third person: Er, der es weiß.

The relative welcher is sometimes used instead of der, if the personal pronoun is not repeated after the relative: ich, welchen Gott erfor | zum höchsten Herrn (Fulda's *Talisman*, I, 6).

Note. If the reference is to the polite form Sie referring to one individual, the relative and, provided the third person is employed, also its verb are in the sing., although Sie is grammatically in the 3rd person pl.: Das weiß eben niemand besser zu beurteilen, als eben Sie, der meine Mutter so gut kennt.

c. The construction *a* seems in general more common than *b* with reference to a pronoun in the first and second person, and *must* be used in *one* case, where ambiguity might otherwise arise. If there are two pronouns in the principal clause, one in the first or second person, the other the uninflected es, the construction which repeats the personal pronoun after the relative should be chosen, if the es is predicate and the relative refers to the pronoun of the first or second person, which is itself the subject of the principal clause; but the construction which drops the personal pronoun and puts the dependent verb in the third person is of course used if the es is the grammatical subject and the following relative clause the real subject of the main verb: Wer ist unglücklich? Ich (subject) bin es (predicate), der ich meine Eltern verloren habe *Who is unhappy? I am, I who have lost my parents*, but Ich (predicate) bin es (subject; see 251. II. B. a. aa), der seine Eltern verloren hat *It is I who has lost his parents*. In the second sentence the verb of the main clause is attracted into the person of the predicate ich, which stands before it, and hence it does not agree with its real subject. The relative here is usually der according to C.

d. Welcher is working its way into this position as it did in C (see this, and also *a* thereunder). It is most common after a personal pronoun of the third person: Sie, welche vor einer halben Stunde das Opernhaus vom Beifallsruf der entzückten Menge erzittern machte (Raabe's *Frühling*, chap. v).

C. In subject and object clauses where the relative is equal to der(jenige) welcher, we usually find der: Selig sind, die Gottes Wort hören und bewahren. Lehre, die dir folgen wollen, deine Wege. Also when the provisional subject es precedes, the relative of subject clauses is usually der: War ich's, der ihm sein Glück zerstörte? See also B. c. Where the predicate is a noun or pronoun and precedes the subject, as in the last sentence, welcher is also often used: Er selbst war es gewesen, welcher dem Freunde die letzten Liebesdienste erwiesen hatte (Marriot's *Der geistliche Tod*, chap. xvii). Welch= is much rarer in object clauses: Und sicherst deinen Kindern großes Gut: | sie dürfen nennen, welche sie gebär (Grillparzer's *Medea*, 4). Earlier in the period welch= was used freely in subject and object clauses, but with a different shade; see *a*, below.

Wer is also employed in subject and object clauses, but with a different meaning, namely, with generalizing or indefinite force; see 156.

a. In early N.H.G. welcher was used in subject clauses with general or indefinite force just as wer (see 156) is now employed: Welcher isst | der isst dem Herrn (Rom. xiv. 6). See also Rom. xiv. 2, 3. Der was also much used in subject clauses, but with a different shade of meaning, namely, with individualizing force. Later wer replaced welcher here, and welcher assumed the force of der and became interchangeable with it. Welcher is not, however, used here so much as der, and cannot be used so freely, as it is limited to the cases where the predicate is a noun or pronoun and precedes the subject. Early N.H.G. usage, however, is still occasionally found.

D. Der is usually employed if the clause is a predicate clause (see 270. 1): Du bist nicht, der du scheinst (Fulda's *Talisman*, 1, 4). Wer is used if the relative has a general or indefinite meaning: Ach Väterchen, wir bleiben, wer wir sind (ib., 1, 10).

152. 1. Welcher (, welche, welches) *who, which* is inflected as a strong adjective except in the gen. masc. and neut. sing., where the strong ending =es is used instead of the weak =en. For those places where welcher is not usually found see 151. 3. A and B. In the constructions mentioned in 151. 2 welcher is either exclusively used or is occasionally found.

2. Welcher is much used in some parts of Germany, where it is preferred to der, and is, in general, very useful where a number of relatives occur in the sentence in relieving der, thus varying the construction, especially where one relative depends upon a word in another relative clause. Or, on the other hand, der may relieve welcher; and indeed it is more common in case there are two relatives to use first welcher and then der: Es ist eine Reihe von Jahren her, als zu dem Artillerieregiment, welches hier in Garnison steht, ein Hauptmann versetzt wurde, der aus dem Westen Deutschlands kam (Wildenbruch). Grammarians usually state that either der or welcher can be used in parallel clauses

depending upon the same word, but that they should not relieve each other: Worte, deren Sinn man einmal gefaßt, die man sich einmal ins Gedächtnis eingeprägt hat. Even good authors do not always follow this rule, but sometimes prefer to change relatives for the sake of variety of expression, or as in the following sentence to heighten a contrast: Ich beginne meine Geschichte mit unbegrenztem Wohlwollen sowohl gegen Mitwelt und Nachwelt, als auch gegen mich selber und alle mir im Lauf der Erzählung vorübergleitenden Schattenbilder des großen Entstehens, Seins und Vergehens — des unendlichen Werdens, welches man Weltentwicklung nennt, welches freilich ein wenig interessanter und reicher als dieses Buch ist, das aber auch nicht, wie dieses Buch, in drei Teilen zu einem befriedigenden Abschluß kommen muß (Raabe's *Hungerpastor*, chap. i).

a. Some grammarians claim that *welch-*, not *der*, should be used if the relative is preceded by the demonstrative *der* and followed by the article *der*, to avoid an unpleasant repetition; but the colloquial language does not seem to be averse to this combination, as the words are so differently accented that they receive quite a different pronunciation: Ach, das [i. e. die Schneider *the daddy-long-legs*] sind die, die die langen Beine haben (Fontane's *Stechlin*, XXX). H. Seidel in his story *Die weißen Ratten* facetiously calls attention to a warning notice in a public park which shows a too liberal use of this repetition: Die, die die, die die Anlagen beschädigen, zur Anzeige bringen, erhalten fünf Taler Bezahlung.

153. Both *der* and *welcher* are replaced by other words in the following cases:—

1. In the nom. and acc. relation *was* is usually employed under the following circumstances:

(1) If the antecedent is a word of general or indefinite meaning, or expresses a collective idea, such as *das*, *einiges*, *eins*, *etwas* (or *was*), *solches*, *ein anderes*, *nichts*, *alles*, *mehreres*, *manches*, *vieles*, *allerhand*, *allerlei*, *das hübsche*, *wenig*, &c., a neuter abstract noun or adjective-substantive (*das Schöne the beautiful*, &c., especially a superlative, *das Beste that which is best*), also a neut. noun denoting a material or a collective idea, provided the reference is to an indefinite mass or amount: Eins aber weiß ich, was ihr nicht mehr wißt: was Recht und Unrecht, Gut und Böse ist (Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*, p. 106). Sie sprach wie von etwas, was sie gar nichts anging (H. Böhlau's *Rangierbahnhof*, p. 43). Sie sah aber nichts, was um sie vorging. Es gibt im Leben so manches, was uns rätselhaft erscheint. Er verzweifelt überhaupt an allem Heil, was der Menschheit durch die Gesellschaft zu teil werden kann (Albert Geiger in *Die Nation*, 10th March, 1900). Man kann das ja nicht im Entferntesten ausdrücken: das Mysterium, was sich damals vollzog (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act 3). Alles Weh, was er mir bereitet hat (Fontane's *Schach von Wuthenow*, chap. xxi). Das Häßliche, was in seinem Gesicht lag, wurde durch sein gefälliges Benehmen zurückgedrängt. Er preist das Höchste, das Beste, was das Herz sich wünscht (Schiller). Um ihn her war alles Getier lebendig, was auf der Heide die Junischwüle auszubrüten pflegt (Storm's *Ein grünes Blatt*). Das wenige Geld, was ich befaß, war in den nächsten Tagen vertan (Raabe's *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, chap. x). Wenn damals ein Säemann gekommen wäre, ein kluger, wahrhaft kluger, herzenskluger, und die Saat gestreut hätte, aus der Heil für die Menschen aufgeht, einzig und allein,

Vergebung, Vergebung, Vergebung, statt des tauben, toten Zeugs, was so schöne Schulmeisternamen hat, Zucht und Ordnung, heilsame Strenge, und wie es heißt usw. (Wildenbruch's *Neid*, p. 127).

Was often points to a definite person or thing, the speaker at first intentionally making the reference indefinite by the use of *was*, reserving the definite information for the last part of the statement: Das erste, was ihnen hier begegnete, war die Krügersfrau (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturme*, IV. 3).

Was is also used here contemptuously of a person: Was ist das für ein ungebackenes Brötchen (referring to Emil), was da hinten sitzt und mitspricht (H. Böhlau's *Rangierbahnhof*, p. 208).

The use of *was* as described above seems to be the outcome of a long process of differentiation. Earlier in the period *das* and *welches* were also used here. This older usage is still, especially in elevated diction, not infrequently found, as the process of differentiation is not yet completed: Vieles, das diesem Volke gut hieß (Nietzsche's *Zarathustra*, p. 80). It is possible that there is often here an intentional use of *das* or *welches* by way of differentiation, to refer to something definite, definite at least to the speaker: In dem Schlafzimmer . . . da wäre an einer Wand, so hieß es, ein Vorhang und unter dem Vorhang etwas, das niemand kannte, niemand gesehen hatte, weil keine Hand den Vorhang lüften durfte (Wildenbruch's *Neid*, p. 14). An dieser Stelle sollte ich nun etwas erleben, welches mich heute noch in der Erinnerung mit Geisterhand in tiefster Seele berührt (Raabe's *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, chap. x). We cannot here, however, in any case absolutely determine whether the *das* or *welches* is used merely as a survival of older usage to indicate a collective idea or something indefinite or general, or is employed intentionally in accordance with modern usage elsewhere, to refer to something definite. Thus *das* and *welches* are now as formerly still used with both of these two groups of meanings, with a tendency, however, toward the second group, while *was*, which also once fluctuated between both of them, is now established in the first group, as described above.

(a) In the genitive relation, *was* is used under the same circumstances which require *was* in the nom. or acc. relation: Es handelt sich, Helmuth, nicht um das, wessen Du bedarfst, sondern es handelt sich um das, wessen die Kinder bedürfen (Fontane's *Unwiederbringlich*, chap. vi). Indessen heunruhigte ihn das, was ich ihm von dem Betragen seines Vaters in dieser Angelegenheit sagte, und alles, wessen er ohnehin von ihm gewärtig sein zu müssen glaubte (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxvi). Also here the older form *dessen* is still used: das Gleiche, dessen sie ihre Gegner anklagten (Keller's *Seldwyla*, I. p. 194); das unaussprechlich Innige aller Musik, vermöge dessen sie als ein ganz vertrautes Paradies an uns vorüberzieht (Schopenhauer's *Die Welt als Wille und Vorstellung*, p. 347).

(2) With reference to a thing, *was* is now usually used in substantive clauses. The student should remember this especially in case of clauses which are in apposition with *es*: Nicht Furcht war es, was seine verstellte Hartnäckigkeit endlich besiegte (Schiller). Steht auf! sind's diese nicht und dieser Ort, | was euch zu Boden zieht (Grillparzer's *Libussa*, I). Es war eine große Neigung, was sie zusammenführte (Fontane's

Stechlin, XIII. p. 164). War es ein Traum, was sie erlebten? (*Wildenbruch's Neid*, p. 61).

Throughout the entire present period *daß* is more or less frequently found in substantive clauses instead of *was* as a survival of older usage: Was ist's, das den Befehl des Königs hindert (*Goethe's Iphigenie*, 4, 2). Was war es nur gewesen, das alle Menschen zu ihm hinzog? (*R. Huch's Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxxvii).

When the predicate of the sentence precedes the relative clause, as in the preceding examples, the relative (either *der* or *welcher*) is often attracted to the gender and number of the predicate: Der Zweifel ist's, der Gutes böse macht (*Goethe's Iphigenie*, 5, 3). Denn eben diese kaiserliche Mild' und Gnade ist's, die sie bisher so ungeheuer mißbrauchten (*Goethe's Götz*, 3, 1). Diese Fragen und andere mehr waren es, welche die untern Räume des Hauses bewegten (*Raabe's Frühling*, chap. xiii).

(3) If the reference is to the idea contained in a whole sentence: Sie fürchtete wohl — was auch wirklich geschah — daß ich ihr auf alle mögliche Weise die Verbindung widerraten würde. In the classics of the eighteenth century we still find *welches* used here as well as *was*, and it even occurs sometimes in the language of to-day. For the sake of emphasis or a contrast both *was* and *welches* may be used here in the same sentence: Davon sagte er zu niemandem etwas, was freilich ein Vergehen war, aber welches ihm vorzuwerfen mir, seinem Sohne, nicht ziemt (*R. Huch's Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xvi).

Welches should not be employed if ambiguity might arise from its use: Er hat den Verkauf abgeschlossen, was (or sometimes *welches*) ich ihm widerraten hatte, but Mein Freund hat ein neues Haus gekauft, was (referring to the fact of the purchase, but *welches* or *daß* if the reference is to the house itself) mir gefällt.

Both *was* and (perhaps less commonly) *welches* are used when the relative refers collectively to two or more things or ideas, in the preceding proposition: Sein Belz hängt an der Wand zwischen einer Auswahl stark angerauchter Pfeifen, zwischen Bastbündeln, Hirschgeweihen, Leinwandfächchen mit Sämereien, was alles im behaglichen Durcheinander sich darstellt (*H. Böhlau's Rangierbahnhof*, p. 5). So erkannte er, daß jenes Fenster nicht nach dem Flusse hinausging, vielmehr sich zwei Fuß hoch über der sichern Erde befand, welches beides er bei etlicher Besonnenheit ohne große Geistesanstrengung genau hätte wissen können (*H. Hoffmann's Rittmeister*, III. p. 41).

In another case *welches* is still not infrequent—when the relative is used as a predicate and the reference is not to individuals but to the idea contained in some adjective or noun: Mein Bruder ist reich or ein Millionär, welches (or perhaps more commonly *was*) ich nicht bin.

(4) *Was* is now avoided in choice language if the reference is to one object. See 157. Earlier in the period, however, this usage was not infrequent even in the best authors, and still survives in loose colloquial speech: Ottilie erinnerte sich jedes Wortes, was gesprochen ward (*Goethe*). Ihr wollt das Gut verkaufen, was über zweihundert Jahre in der Familie ist? (*Halbe's Mutter Erde*, I. p. 52).

2. When the relative pronoun refers to a thing, it is very often

replaced after prepositions by a compound adverb consisting of *wo* or *wor* (before a vowel) and the desired preposition: *die Feder, womit ich dieses schreibe, ist sehr schlecht*. These compound adverbs cannot be freely formed, but occur only in case of the preps. enumerated in 141. 5. B. This adverbial construction can even be used of persons if taken collectively: *Er bekam 30 gefangen, wovon' auf der Stelle 20 aufgehängt wurden*. These compounds are separable in popular speech: *Es war ein Loch, wo der Wind durch pfiß*. See also B, below.

A. Besides these relative adverbs the appropriate forms of *der* and *welcher*, as *mit dem*, *mit welchem*, &c., are also employed here. Although the relative adverbs are very common in popular and colloquial speech, the literary language seems to prefer the declined pronominal forms. The adverbial forms are, however, always used in the following cases: (1) When the antecedent is a whole sentence: *Der Vater hatte nach dem Sohne geschickt, wovon dieser freilich nichts erfahren hatte*. In the cases given in 2, above, where the adverbial forms are not used, *der* or *welcher* must be employed. With the prepositions *wegen* and *halb* the short gen. form of *was*, i. e. *was*, is usually used. See 151. 1. b. (2) When the antecedent is an expression of general or indefinite meaning, such as *alles*, *nichts*, &c.: *Er wußte alles, wovon ich mit Ihnen gesprochen hatte* He knew everything of which I had spoken to you. (3) After names of places we find *wo*, compounded with *hin* or *her* according to the meaning: *Gumbinnen, wohin ich in Garnison kam Gumbinnen, to which place I came to join the garrison*.

a. The relative pronoun *must* be used if any ambiguity might arise from the use of the relative adverb: *Er hat ihm viele Vorwürfe gemacht, von denen (with reference to Vorwürfe; wovon would refer to the statement of the main proposition) aber nichts in die Öffentlichkeit gekommen ist*.

The relative pronoun is also usually (not, however, always) used when the antecedent is a strongly accented determinative, as *der*, *derjenige*, *solcher*, or as *ein* in the meaning of *ein solcher*: *Es war eine Nacht, in welcher (rather than worin) man nicht gern einen Hund hinausjagt. Lies nicht solche Bücher, aus denen du nichts lernen kannst*. Even here, however, the relative adverb is used if the antecedent is a neut. pronoun of general or indef. meaning: *Der liebe Gott gebe ihrer Seele das, wozu er sie geschaffen, Freude*.

B. Instead of the relative adverb we still find sometimes the demonstrative adverb, a construction which was very common earlier in the period: *An dieser Stelle, einer Waldlichtung, lag das Haus, drin (now more commonly in dem or worin) Moys und sein Bruder Stephan wohnten (Fontane)*. These adverbial compounds are now little used with reference to the thought in a preceding sentence, but this usage was common earlier in the period: *Die Gesellschaft lachte, und er herzlich mit, bis er in einen Husten verfiel, der unsern Diskurs eine Zeit lang unterbrach, darauf denn der junge Mensch wieder das Wort nahm (Goethe's Werther, am 1. Julius)*.

Earlier in the period such adverbs also referred to persons, and were often separable: *ein Weib, da der Mann keine Freude an hat (Luther), den Berg, da du auf wohnest (Luther)*.

C. This adverbial construction, except in the case mentioned in 2, above, must not be used of persons, as is often heard in the language of the common people: *Der Freund, mit dem or welchem (not womit) ich gereist bin*. Earlier in the period, however, these adverbs were also used with reference to persons even in the literary language: *der, womit man spricht (Hagedorn); das Mädchen, wovon du gestern das Lied sangst (Goethe). Ich dachte der lieben Brüder, der Westfalen, womit ich so oft in Göttingen getrunken (Heine)*.

3. Other adverbs and conjunctions can also take the place of the relatives after prepositions and sometimes elsewhere.

A. Wo, woher, wohin, or in choice prose and poetry da, daher, dahin, for place: Der Platz, wo (= an welchem) er stand; die Stadt, woher (= von welcher) er kam; die Stadt, wohin (nach welcher) er geht.

B. Wie for manner: Die Art und Weise, wie (= in welcher) er auftrat.

C. For time:

a. Als when, if actual occurrences or conditions are recorded: im Jahre 1890, als ich in Berlin studierte.

b. Wenn or wann (now rather infrequent, occurring only as a survival of earlier usage) when, if not a definite actual occurrence is before the mind, but something that is or was wont to happen, or a point in future time: An schönen Abenden, wenn wir vor der Tür saßen. Manchmal in tiefer Nacht, wenn alles rings umher ruhte, sang sie mir. O schöner Tag, wenn endlich der Soldat | ins Leben heimkehrt, in die Menschlichkeit (Schiller's *Piccolomini*, I, 4).

c. Wo when, the most common of the temporal particles used either of actual occurrences or conditions in the past or present, or of some point in the future, largely replacing als in case of present and often wenn in case of future time: Und mit der Dämmerung kam ein Augenblick, wo jede Stimme verstummte (Raabe). Ich bin in einem Alter, wo mir die schönen Worte nichts mehr helfen (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, p. 75). Ich war in den glücklichen Jahren, wo uns alles gefällt. Einst kommt der Morgen, wo ich . . . die Burg schon früh' verlasse (Hebbel's *Nibelungen*, II. 1, 2). Der Abend darf nie kommen, wo ich hier so stünde (H. von Hofmannsthal's *Die Hochzeit der Sobeide*, p. 63).

d. Da is often used instead of wo, quite commonly earlier in the period and not infrequently still in choice prose: Sie müssen versuchen, sich in die Zeit zurückzuversetzen, da (or more commonly wo or als) auch Sie jung waren. Von dem Zeitpunkt an, da (Curtius); bis den Augenblick, da mich Ihr Bisset aus dem Schlafe weckt (Goethe).

e. Also the conjunction daß is used for wo, als, or wenn: Während der Zeit, daß ich Don Karlos ausarbeitete, hat sich in mir vieles verändert (Schiller). Freunde, dieses ist wohl das letzte Mal, daß ich den Krug euch führe zum Munde (Goethe). Während der Viertelstunde, daß ich diese kleine weiße Hand in der meinigen gehalten habe, hat das Herz des jungen Dinges fast zweitausend Schläge getan (Raabe's *Frühling*, chap. xiii). Die drei Monate — die kurze Zeit, daß ich hier bei euch futtere (colloq. *eat, board*), bin ich zwanzig Pfund schwerer geworden (M. Dreyer's *Drei*, 1). It is often more common now to use an adverb (wo, &c.) here. In certain set expressions, however, daß is still frequent: Es sind zwölf Jahre, daß ich hier wohne. See also 271. II.

D. The English *such as* is translated in various ways:

(1) By wie (earlier in the period als) followed usually by a pronoun of the third person referring to the antecedent (see 251. II. A. d): Das war ein Kampf, wie ihn keiner noch gesehen hat. Er zeigte eine Rührung, wie jener kleine Dienst sie gar nicht wert war. A solch, derartig, derlei, so may precede the wie (als): Solche (derartige, derlei, so große) Schiffe, wie (sic) hier gebaut werden, sieht man anderwärts selten. So ein armes Mädchen, als (now usually wie) ich bin (Goethe).

Instead of the personal pronoun we also find *ein=* in the sing. and *welch=* in the pl.: Auf der Stirn hat es ein Horn, aber nicht ein so krummes wie das Nashorn *eins* hat. . . Von seinen vier Hufen ist der eine von Gold, . . . der vierte wie einer von den blauen Steinen, wie Mama *welche* um den Hals trägt (Wildenbruch's *Neid*, p. 100).

(2) After *solch=* also by the usual relatives: solche Bücher, die dazu beitragen, das Herz zu beruhigen.

(3) By *dergleichen* (uninflected): Es überfiel ihn ein Unbehagen, dergleichen er in seinem Leben noch nicht empfunden hatte. See also 161. 2.

4. So viel is used relatively: Die Fremden, so viele ihrer anwesend waren, unterhielten sich gut.

5. In the nom. and acc. of all genders and numbers the uninflected form *so* was much used for *der* or *welcher* in early N.H.G., and is still occasionally found in poetry and in colloquial language in some sections: Bittet für die | so euch beleidigten (Matt. v. 44). Das Haupt, so er ihm abgehauen (Uhland). Kopf hoch! Lehnt sich ja nicht, daß man sich über den ganzen Rummel aufregt, so man Leben nennt (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 45).

6. Earlier in the period *derselbe* was used occasionally as a relative, but this usage is now quite rare: So hielten sie mich acht Tage im Gefängnis, nach Verlauf derselben (now nach deren Verlauf) sie mich zum Verhör holen ließen (Goethe). Die Kreise zu überschauen, innerhalb derselben (now deren) sich jene hohen Geister bewegten (Heine).

7. In concessive clauses *was für ein* is used relatively: Was er für Handelsgefächste beginnt, er gewinnt bei allen.

8. The relatives *der* and *welcher* are not popular with the common people, and are often here replaced by the demonstrative *der*, the relative adverbs *wo* and *als*, the adverbial compounds *womit* (see 2. C, above), &c., and the uninflected *was*: Ach Vater, sagte Hänsel, ich sehe nach meinem weißen Käschchen, das sitzt oben auf dem Dach (Grimm's *Märchen*). Das schlechte Messer, wo (= das) er hat (Hebel). Ist doch all manche zu Rang und Stand gekommen, wo (= der, fem. dat. sing.) man's nicht an der Wiege gesungen hat, daß die mal wird gnädige Frau heißen und vierlang fahren (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 43). Wer sind die, wo (= welche) eben gekommen sind (ib., p. 63). Das Quecksilber in der Röhre ist demjenigen, als in dem Kölbchen steht, gleich (Hebel). Der Knecht, was mit'm Wagen war, hat so was dergleichen g'redt (Jenzgruber).

154. Neither *der* nor *welcher* can be omitted as in English: Das Buch, daß (or welches) ich gestern gelesen habe, ist interessant The book I read, &c.

155. 1. *Wer who, whoever, somebody who* and *was what, which, whatever* are inflected exactly as the interrogative *wer* and *was*. See 147. 1.

a. The old gen. *was* is sometimes still used instead of *wessen* in poetry and biblical language: Was das Herz vel ist | des gehet der Mund vber (Matt. xii. 34). The neut. gen. *was* is still common also in prose in the compounds *weshalb*, *weshwegen*; see 151. 1. *b.* The masc. and neut. gen. *was* is also still occasionally found in concessive clauses, where it is used seemingly as an adjective modifying a following gen.: Einem Mädchen, was Standes (of whatever rank) es sei, ist die Frage über ihre Wochsgestalt ein wichtiges Problem. This attributive use of *was* has taken the place of an older partitive gen. construction, as explained in 147. 1. *E.* The original partitive gen. is now only rarely found: Dem Bischof gönnen wir willig, was Ehren er auch hat (Freiligrath, 2, 174). It is still quite common in case of adjective-substantives, but is felt rather as a nom. or acc. in apposition with the *was*: Es schien, als wollte jeder sich von allem entleeren, was er nur Bewegliches besaß (Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, I, 3). It is elsewhere usually replaced by the prepositional construction with *von* or *now* more commonly with *an*: So stürzte ich alles, was ich von [or an] Geschirr

erschleppen konnte, in gleiches Verberben (ib., I, 1). The prep. phrase often precedes the *was*: *Marinja hatte, um sich möglichst rasch an Technik anzueignen, was ihr nach dieser Richtung fehlte, in ihrem Übereifer die rechte Hand übermäßig angestrengt* (Schubin's *Refugium peccatorum*, VIII).

2. Both *wer* and *was* can be used in a general sense without an antecedent, but *was* has a wider range of usefulness, as it can also have an antecedent; see 157.

156. *Wer* is always used in an indefinite sense and may thus refer to one or more, but never to a definite person, in which case *der* or *der welcher* must be used: *Nur wer die Sehnsucht kennt, weiß, was ich leide* *Only those* (I know not just who they are) *who know what yearning is know what I suffer*, but *Der mich liebt und kennt, ist in der Weite* *He who* (a definite person) *loves me and knows me is far away*. Die ich meine, heißt Frau Finkelsee (Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*, Act 2, l. 1047). Die (= die welche, here definite persons) so redeten, wußten sehr wohl, daß sie bis zu einem gewissen Grade die öffentliche Meinung ihres Volkes und Heeres hinter sich hatten. *Wer das gesagt hat, ist ein Lügner* *Whoever* (somebody, but I don't know who) *said that is a liar*. *Wer aber hereinkam, das war der Wilhelm* *Who do you suppose came in?* But of course you don't know. Just think, it was William. Quite different is *der, welcher hereinkam, war Wilhelm* *It was William who came in*. Es tut doch wohl, wen (somebody whom) man lieb hat, einmal wieder mit Augen zu sehen. In these sentences the relative *wer* still contains something of its original indef. nature; see 145. e. Note 2.

a. The double construction is employed after *wer* as found after *jemand* described in 145. b. Note 1: *Grüßen Sie Lavatern . . . und wem Sie etwa Gutes (or Gutem) begegnen* (Goethe an Karl August, I, 38).

157. *Was* can be used in the same indef. sense as *wer*: *Was er sagt, ist gut*. *Was* can have an antecedent, if that antecedent be a word expressing an indef. general idea, such as an indef. pronoun, a neut. adjective used substantively, or a thought contained in a whole sentence, but it should never have for an antecedent the name of a def. object, though some good authors do thus use it instead of the more correct *welcher* or *der* (see 153. i. (4)): *Alles, was er sagt, ist gut*. *Das war das Schlimmste, was ich befürchtete*. *Mein Bruder ist reich, was* (here also *welches* but not now *das*; for fuller explanation see 153. i. (3)) *ich nicht bin*. *Das Gut, was* (instead of *das* or *welches*) *der Vater hinterlassen hat* (Freitag). For fuller treatment of the use of *was* with an antecedent see 153. i and the various articles thereunder.

a. In early N.H.G. *das* could also be used in plain substantive clauses, where it is now usually replaced by *was*: *Und wer nicht hat | von dem wird man nemen | auch das er hat* (Mark iv. 25). *Das* is most common in such substantive clauses as are in apposition with an *es*, but even there only in poetry or choice prose; see 153. i. (2).

b. *Was* is also used of persons in a collective sense: *Was von Offizieren im Lager war, wurde zusammengetrommelt* (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XLIX). Sometimes with the force of *wer* in a general indefinite sense: *Früh übt sich, was ein Meister werden will* (Schiller's *Tell*, 3, 1). *Was* in this meaning is now

more commonly employed contemptuously: Was so herumbummelt, bringt es zu nichts.

158. 1. The adverbs *immer*, *auch*, or combined *auch immer*, also *auch nur*, *nur immer* standing after *wer* and *was*, or several words removed, give generalizing force to the relative, and are much like our *ever*, *soever* in *whoever*, *whatever*, &c.: *Wer immer es gesagt hat, er hat gelogen. Von wem er es auch immer gehört haben mag, es ist gelogen.*

2. The demon. adverb *da*, which often, especially in popular language, follows the relative, has in general the force of a strengthening word, which often, however, can scarcely be translated (see *Note* below): *Komme, was da will. Let come what will. Wer da will. Whoever will. Der Herr | der da ist | und der da war | und der da kommt* (Rev. i. 8). See also Mark xi. 10, Rom. xii. 2. This use of *da*, though in early N.H.G. more common, is still frequently found: *Sie harrten der Dinge, die da kommen sollten* (Keller). *Sie schritten vor dem Vater und der Mutter her, mit einer gewissen Feierlichkeit, wie Menschen die da wissen, daß ihnen eine große und bedeutsame Aufgabe zu teil geworden ist* (Wildenbruch).

Note. The *da* strengthens the already general meaning of *wer* and *was*, and hence here has generalizing force. After *der* and *welcher* (here not so frequently used as *der*), *da* has particularizing force, calling especial attention to the particular persons or things, or the particular class of persons or things in question. *Da* following an interrogative in indirect questions has particularizing force as after *der* and *welcher*: *Die Guten stehen ernst und still, und harren, was da werden will.*

3. The demonstrative adv. *so* is placed after *was* to denote the general idea of quality, so that both words together convey the idea of *such things as*: *Was mag wohl darin sein? Allerhand Krimskrams: Kleider, Schürzen, Bänder, Flittertand, was so Frauenzimmer brauchen.*

CONDITIONAL RELATIVE.

159. *Wer for anybody who, if any one* has the same declension as the relative and interrogative *wer*. It has the force of *wenn man*, *wenn einer*, and the clause in which it is found is treated as if it were a conditional clause, the verb standing at the end of the clause: *Freiheit? Ein schönes Wort, wer's recht verstände* (Goethe's *Egmont*, Act 4). *Fragen ist keine Schande, wer ein Ding nicht weiß* (Grimm). *Das (Selbstbeherrschung) ist eine schöne Errungenschaft, wer etwas davon hat* (Bismarck to his betrothed, Feb. 23, 1847). In early N.H.G. and as late as Goethe's day, *der* was also used in the same way.

CORRELATIVE PRONOUNS.

160. 1. A. Referring to a def. person or object: *He* (*she*, *that one* [of a thing]), *who* (*which*), are represented in German by the following correlatives:

- a. *Der* (die, das) *jenige, welcher* (welche, welches) or *der* (die, das).
- b. *Der* (die, das), *welcher* (welche, welches).
- c. *Der* (die, das), *der*, &c.
- d. *Er* (sie), *der* (die); see 2. a, below.

e. Without antecedent (see 156): *Der* (not *welcher*) *nich* liebt, *ist* in der *Weite*; or *der*, *er* (see 2. c, below).

f. *Solcher*, *der* (*welcher*) one which, of such a nature that, such as: *solche*, *die* *würdig* *sind* such as are worthy. We often find *wie* or *als* instead of *der* or *welcher*, and *derartig*, *derlei*, *so*, *ein* instead of *solch*; see 153. 3. D.

g. *Derselbe*, *der* the same one who: *Er* *ist* *eben* *derselbe*, *den* *wir* *gestern* *sahen*.

h. *Der*, *so* (early N.H.G.; see 153. 5) = *der*, *welcher*.

i. The first member in all the above cases can also, except in *d* and *e*, be used adjectively.

B. Referring indefinitely or in a general way to persons or to some thing:

a. *Wer*, *der*: *Wer* *das* *sagt*, *der* *lügt*. See 156, and 2. b, below.

b. *Das* (or *das'jenige*, *eins*, *etwas*, *nichts*, *alles*, *manches*, *vielles*, *das* *Beste*, or any adjective-substantive), *was* (not now usually *das* or *welches*, as in earlier part of the period): *Das*(*jenige*), *was* *er* *sagt*, *ist* *wahr*. *Es* *gibt* *im* *Leben* *so* *manches*, *was* *uns* *räthelhaft* *erscheint*. See also 153. 1. (1).

2. a. The form *er*, *der* (1. A. d, above) is different from the others. The determinative is of itself indef., and its meaning is only determined by the clause that always follows it. Hence the forms *a*, *b*, *c* are used when it is a question of the *who*? When the subject is a person already mentioned and thus known and some particular statement with regard to him follows in the relative clause, *er*, *der* are used: *Er* (Arneht, the Austrian historian, who is the subject of the sketch from which this sentence is taken), *der* *im* *ganzen* *eines* *der* *glücklichsten* *Menschenleben* *hinter* *sich* *hat*, *genoss* *auch* *das* *große* *Glück*, *eine* *Mutter* *zu* *haben*, *die* *zu* *den* *herrlichsten* *deutschen* *Frauen* *gerechnet* *werden* *muß*.

Note. Occasionally *er* is used determinatively with the force of *der*(*jenige*): *Für* *mich* *steht* *sie* (i.e. *die* *Musik*) *auf* *der* *untersten* *Stufe*: *gut* *für* *Kinder* *und* *Träumer*, *aber* *nicht* *für* *sie*, *die* *sich* *zu* *handelnden* *Menschen* *ausgewachsen* *haben* (Spielhagen's *Freigebornen*, p. 176).

b. The *der* in 1. B. a is not an antecedent of *wer*, but only the repetition of the subject *wer*, and not being necessary can be dropped. However, if *wer* and its seeming antecedent do not stand in the same case, it is not usually omitted: *Wer* *ein* *Mal* *lügt*, *dem* *glaubt* *man* *nicht* *und* *wenn* *er* *auch* *die* *Wahrheit* *spricht*.

c. The definite subject *der* can be repeated by a following *er* in the same manner as indefinite *wer* is repeated by *der*, as described in b: *Der* *meinen* *alten* *Gliedern* *Mut* *verlieh*, | *in* *eure* *Höhle* *mich* *hinauf* *zu* *wagen*, | *er* *steht* *mir* *bei*, *ich* *fühl's* (Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*, Act 3, ll. 1382-4).

STEREOTYPED PRONOMINAL FORMS.

161. There are a number of compound pronominal forms which are now treated as indeclinables and are written with a small letter, although some of them are in fact substantives.

1. mei'nes (dei'nes, sei'nes, ih'res, un'jeres, &c.) gleichen *one of my (your, his, her, our) stamp, one who is my (your, his, her, our) equal*, fossilized genitives (see *a*) used substantively without change of form for any case sing. or pl.: Seineſgleichen (nom. sing.) läßt ſich kaum wieder finden. Seineſgleichen (nom. pl.) laſſen ſich kaum wieder finden. Er erkannte ihn für ſeineſgleichen (acc. sing.). Ich habe nie ihreſgleichen (acc. sing. or pl.) geſehen I have never seen the like of her (them). Leute ihreſgleichen (gen. pl.) finden ſich ſelten. Er geht mit ihnen wie mit ſeineſgleichen (dat. pl.) um.

a. Such forms as meineſgleichen, though used with unchanged forms for all cases, are in fact fossilized genitives of the wk. masc. adjective-substantive *Gleiche equal, one who is like*. This gen. was once a real partitive genitive. It became fossilized in negative sentences: Er findet nicht ſeineſgleichen (partitive gen. depending upon nicht; see 145. *g. Note 2*), literally, *He will find nothing of one equal to himself*. Later this original construction was forgotten and the gen. was used for any case, sing. or pl., masc. or fem. The fossilized acc. sing. masc. is also used in ohneſgleichen, ſondergleichen *without a parallel*: Sie erlauben ſich Kühnheiten ohneſgleichen (in form a masc. acc. sing., but refers here to an abstract fem. noun in the pl.). The fossilized acc. form is also still found in deſſen Gleichen and deren Gleichen; see 2.

In Luther's time *gleich* was still felt as a wk. masc. noun: Denn er iſt nicht mein Gleiche (Job ix. 32). Compare Ich bin's, bin Faui, bin deineſgleichen! (Goethe's *Faust*, Nacht).

2. Deſgleichen (for the sing.) and much more commonly dergleichen (for sing. or pl., masc., fem., or neut.) *of such a nature, such, the like, of the (that) kind, such as*, used adjectively and substantively, demonstratively or relatively. Demonstratively: Und diß gleichen Neuchwerg ſolt jr euch nicht machen (Ex. xxx. 37). Sie ſcheinen ſich auf dergleichen Handel zu verſtehen They seem to underſtand trade of ſuch a nature. Eine dergleichen (now derartige, as dergleichen does not now usually tolerate an article before it) Lobrede (Lessing), dergleichen Scherze, dergleichen Leute. Bei dergleichen iſt aber daß Weib dem Mann über (Rosegger) In ſuch things a woman is ahead of a man. Ja, ganz unverhofft; vor acht Tagen haben wir unß nichts dergleichen träumen laſſen. Auf einem Tiſche hatte er die Gewinne ausgelegt: lauter Kleinigkeiten, Bonbons, Bildchen, Bleiſtifte und dergleichen. Der neugebackene Sextaner ſtand wie ein armer Sünder da und erwartete einen tüchtigen Rüffel; doch nichts dergleichen (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XIII) *but nothing of the kind happened*.

Relatively: wil wunder thun | der gleichen nicht geſchaffen ſind (Ex. xxxiv. 10). Und hat ſolche groſſe ſtraffe vber unß gehen laſſen | Deß gleichen vnter allem Himmel nicht geſchehen iſt (Baruch ii. 2). Einen überlegenden Schurken, dergleichen Franz iſt (Schiller). Er ging im Sonnenschein auf der Wieſe, wo allerlei merkwürdige und unbekannte Blumen blühten, umflogen von Schmetterlingen, dergleichen er nie geſehen hatte (H. Seidel's *Der Schatz*, III).

The above forms are fossilized genitives (see 1. *a*), but also the acc. is ſimilarly used in connection with a gen. of a relative: deſſen Gleichen with reference to a masc. or neut. sing. and deren Gleichen with reference to a fem. sing. or any noun in the pl. Exs.: Den merkwürdigſten Platz, deſſen Gleichen in der Welt vielleicht nicht wieder zu ſehen

ist (Goethe). Immer war ihr Antlitz von leuchtender Heiterkeit und all ihr Gebaren von einer leichten Anmut übergossen, deren Gleiches er noch nicht gesehen hatte (H. Hoffmann's *Die Totenhochzeit*, p. 159).

a. Dergleichen is also used adverbially: Die Hofrätin wußte, wo das hinaus wollte, tat aber nicht dergleichen (Berlepsch's *Fortunats Roman*, p. 16) *but she didn't let on*, i. e. pretended not to know. Also nichts instead of nicht: Und die Bewegung, die kurze, stolze, mit der sie die Blume zum Fenster hinauswarf, weil Edith sie wohl gefunden — und ich nichts dergleichen getan hatte (Schubin's *Refugium peccatorum*, II, 6) *because I had pretended not to notice* (that she wore the flower to show her love for me). Sometimes desgleichen: Es schien unmöglich, daß Frau Uelzen nichts bemerkt haben sollte, wenn diese auch keineswegs desgleichen tat (Spielhagen's *Das Skelett im Hause*, II).

3. Derlei (= dergleich'en) *of such a nature*, used as a demonstrative, both adjectively and substantively: aus allen derlei Betrachtungen. Derlei waren damals die Ideale junger Leute *Such things were at that time the ideals of young people*. Thus also a number of compounds with lei: allerlei all kinds of, beiderlei both, both kinds of, einerlei of one kind, all the same (Das ist mir einerlei), mancherlei many kinds of, solcherlei such kinds of, &c. See 126. 1. a.

4. Allerhand (= allerlei) *all kinds of*, used adjectively and substantively: allerhand Blumen all kinds of flowers. Es ist die Rede gewesen von allerhand *The conversation was about all sorts of things*. Allerhand Gutes all sorts of good things. See 139. 1. a. Note.

5. Unsererlei (= unseriner *one of our stamp*), though usually inflected like a strong neuter adjective with contraction to =eins in the nom. and acc., is sometimes invariable throughout: Mit unsererlei (instead of unserinem) machen sie nicht viel Umstände. These loose compounds are formed by writing together two distinct words unser (gen. pl. of the personal pronoun) and einer or eins, substantive forms of the numeral ein. For the double gender here see 263. I. 6. b. See also 263. II. 4. f.

Unseriner is now also often used with the force of ich: Unseriner hat's nicht so gut.

THE VERB.

162. A verb is a word that predicates action or being.

CLASSIFICATION.

163. Verbs are divided into two classes: *transitive* and *intransitive*.

1. A *transitive* verb is one that requires a complement in the acc. case: Ich liebe den Vater.

2. An *intransitive* verb is one that either requires no complement, as ich frue, or takes a complement in the gen., or dat., or in some case governed by a preposition: Ich bedarf des Trostes. Ich begegne einem Freunde. Er trachtet nach dem Gelde.

3. Under the above classes are distinguished:

a. Reflexive verbs which take an object designating the same

person or thing as their subject: Er lobt sich (acc.). Er schadet sich (dat.).

b. Impersonal verbs used only in the 3rd person sing. with the indef. subject es, expressed or understood: Es schneit. Mir graut davor, or Es graut mir davor.

GRAMMATICAL FORMS OF THE VERB.

164. The verb distinguishes by its forms person, number, tense, mood, and voice. These forms are used as in English, and only two, tense and mood, need special treatment.

TENSE (for formation see 177. I, II, III and 190).

165. There are three absolute tenses (present, pres. perfect, and future), which express time from the standpoint of the moment in which the speaker is speaking without reference to some other act; and three relative tenses (past, past perfect, and future perfect), which express time relatively to the preceding absolute tenses. The following articles on tense apply principally to the tenses of the indicative. The tenses of the subjunctive are treated under the head of the subjunctive mood.

i. The present tense represents an action or event as taking place in present time: Der Baum blüht.

It is also used:

a. To express a general truth: Zweimal zwei ist vier.

b. In narration, to make more vivid past events and bring them nearer the hearer. This usage of the present, common also in English, is called the historical present. In German it frequently in narration relieves the past tense and thus furnishes a means to vary the style. Some authors are very fond of it, while others use it little or not at all. In Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea* it is conspicuously absent, and is in general uncommon in epic poetry.

Note. An unusually frequent use is made of the historical present in the language of the common people and familiar language generally, alternating quite generally with the present perfect; see 2. b.

c. As the English present perfect in the progressive form, to express that the action or state has been continuing and is still continuing at the present time, usually accompanied by the adverbs bereits, schon *already*, erst *only*, lange *long*, or the prep. seit *since*: Wie lange lernen Sie schon deutsch? Ich lerne es erst seit sechs Monaten How long have you been studying German? I have been studying it for only six months. Wir warten bereits seit einer Stunde auf ihn. Wie lange sind Sie hier? How long have you been here?

Note. Thus also the perfect infinitive after modal auxiliaries must be rendered into German by the present infinitive, to show that something might have taken place and might now be continuing in existence: Wenn du vernünftig gewesen wärest, du könntest, so jung du bist, längst Hüttenmeister sein If you had been reasonable, you might, as young as you are, have been serving now for a long while as superintendent of the foundry.

d. Very often instead of the future, especially in sentences expressing decision, or a result confidently expected, or an inquiry

after the probable outcome of something, and also in sentences in which the verb is modified by some adverb or conjunction of time which contains the idea of futurity: *Morgen komm' ich* instead of *Ich werde morgen kommen*. *Kommt er?* *Er kommt* *Will he come?* *He certainly will*. *Wir sind bald da* *We shall soon be there*. *Warte, bis ich komme*.

e. Instead of the imperative (see 177. I. B. b).

2. The present perfect is used to represent that something is finished at the time of speaking, or that the results of a past act still continue in the present (see also 3. A. a, below): *Ich habe den Brief schon geschrieben*. *Ich bin eben von der Stadt gekommen*. *Columbus hat Amerika entdeckt*. *Die Kirche ist im 14ten Jahrhundert erbaut worden*.

The present perfect is also used:

a. Instead of the future perfect: *Wenn du angekommen bist, werde ich dich besuchen* (instead of *Wenn du angekommen sein wirst, &c.*).

b. Often in dialect and colloquial speech instead of the past tense in narrative: „*Wir haben gezittert am ganzen Leib*," fuhr der braune Schmied fort, „*wir haben ein Vaterunser beten wollen, aber die Zunge ist wie gelähmt gewesen vor Schreck* " (Rosegger). *Ja, wie wir nu in seinem Zelt gekommen sind, da ist er erst eine ganze Weile so uf und abgegangen und hat nicht nich geredt* (Finke in Wildenbruch's *Die Quitzows*, 1, 8). *Darauf hat Tante Ida mich angesehen und gefragt, „na also — wer war's?" Weil ich aber doch geruht habe, daß du's nicht haben wolltest, habe ich nichts gesagt*. *Da hat Tante Ida rote Flecke auf den Backen bekommen und gemeint, &c.* (Young Georg von Drebkau in Wildenbruch's *Vice-Mama*). This usage is also found in earlier authors of the period. The use of the present perfect here seems to result from the desire of the speaker to bring events of the past into relations to the present. In S.G. dialect the use of the present perfect is further favored by the fact that the past tense indicative (not the subjunctive, however) has in large measure disappeared, as certain of its forms have by phonetic development become identical with those of the present. Thus Swabian authors as Schiller sometimes allow themselves to be influenced by dialect here even in their serious productions: *Ich selbst, als mich in später Dämmerung einſt | der Weg an diesem Baum vorüberführte, | hab' ein gespenstisch Weib hier sitzen sehen* (Schiller's *Jungfrau*, Prolog 2, ll. 102-4).

3. A. The past tense usually represents a past act or condition not in its completeness, but as being performed or continuing at the same time as some other act or condition, or it represents the act as completed in past time in connection with some other event. Hence the past tense has for its leading idea that of the simultaneity of two or more related past acts or conditions. It accordingly represents single acts or facts as links in a chain of facts, and for this reason it is the usual tense for the description and narration of all related events and conditions in the past, and is therefore the prevailing tense of narrative, history, and the novel. The past tense, however, is not confined to lengthy description, but is used even in a single sentence if it describes something as it once was without relation to the present: *Die deutschen Kaiser wurden in Frank-*

furt gefrönt. Thus the past tense cuts us off from the present entirely, and leads us into the midst of past events and conditions which are developing at the same time with close relations to each other, but with no relations whatever to the present, and thus this tense differs rather sharply from the present perfect, where the relation to the present is never entirely broken off. The past tense does not, however, imply necessarily time very remote, but is used for time past, whether it refers to remote acts or to those of a few moments ago, if it turns the mind from the present to two past acts or events, or to a series of past events in their relations to each other: Als die Bäume in vollster Blüte standen, trat heftiger Frost ein. Ich sang, indem er Klavier spielte. Ich sang beim Ankleiden. Cäsar starb 44 v. Chr.

a. The past tense is often confounded with the present perfect. The latter is used when the results of a past act still exist in the present, or to represent a past event as an independent fact, not as a link in a chain of related events, and emphasizes the bearing of this past event upon the present. Thus the present perfect looks at the past from the standpoint of the present or of stern fact, while the past tense takes us into the past and enlists our interest in the events then taking place. Hence in the midst of a narrative where the past tense or past perfect has been uniformly used, the speaker changes to the pres. perf. at once, when he desires (1) to represent a past act not as a link in the chain of events, but according to his judgment as an important independent fact, or (2) to represent that the result of a past act still exists at the time of the narrative: (1) Luther tat zu Worms einen Gang, dergleichen mancher Kriegsoberst in der schwersten Schlacht nicht getan hat. (2) In dem seiner Wohnung gegenüber liegenden Hause, wo sein Freund Wilhelm wohnte, war das Scharlachfieber ausgebrochen und, da Fritz allen Warnungen zuwider doch noch zu seinem dort wohnenden Freunde ging, so ist er ebenfalls erkrankt und liegt nun schwer danieder.

b. Thus also an eye-witness of events naturally uses the past tense in narrating these events as he has seen them take place in their relations to each other, and may use this tense even in giving a single sentence, as there is in his mind a complete picture of the whole occurrence: Gestern erkrankt ein Kind. Sie waren gestern in der Oper. On the other hand, when these things are communicated to a third party by the one who has only *heard* them, he uses the pres. perf., because they are to the speaker only independent facts: Gestern ist ein Kind ertrunken. Sie sind gestern in der Oper gewesen.

c. The lively tone that is associated with the past tense and its short convenient form are tending to extend its use at the expense of the pres. perf. This is especially marked in newspaper language and also in common conversation: Dublin, 24 Dec. Ein Rettungsgebot, das ausgelassen war, um die bedrängte Besatzung eines Schiffes in der Bucht von Kingstown zu retten, schlug um. Sechzig Personen ertranken (*Kölnische Zeitung*). Sie brauchen wohl nicht versichert zu werden, daß man überall die größte Freude über Ihre Tat empfand (G. Keller an Baechtold, 2, 453). Fedor: Was macht dein Bild? Robert: Es geht. Ich bin in Stimmung. Mein Vebtag war ich nicht so fleißig (Schnitzler's *Das Märchen*, p. 58). Hans (ruft): War jemand da? (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, p. 112).

B. The past is also used as the past perfect of the progressive form in English (just as the present in German is used for the present perf. in English, as described in 1. c, above) to describe an action as begun at some previous time, but as still continuing up to the time spoken of in the past: Ich wartete schon zwei Stunden auf ihn, als er kam I had been waiting two hours for him when he came.

C. The past is often used for the past perfect; see 4. a, below.

D. The past is also used for the future perfect ; see 6, below.

4. The past perfect tense represents a past action or event as completed at or before a certain past time : Als er das gehört hatte, erschraf er When he had heard that, he became frightened.

a. The past perf. is often replaced by the past : Als er das hörte, erschraf er.

5. The future tense represents an action or event as yet to take place : Mein Herz wird sich freuen, wenn ich dich wiedersehen werde.

The future is also used of an action or event in past time that was yet to take place : Die Dirne ging mit bloßem Kopfe, sie wird also den Holzschnitzer nur eine Strecke und nicht allzuweit begleiten (Anzengruber's *Sternsteinhof*, p. 69).

The present tense often takes the place of the future ; see 1. d, above.

a. The future is also used instead of the imperative (177. I. B. c).

b. It is often used to express a probability or supposition, often accompanied by wohl : Karl wird wohl krank sein Karl is probably sick. Der Hund wird sechs Jahre alt sein The dog is probably about six years old.

c. In North German popular language the future in lively narration is often used instead of the past, the speaker thus in a vivid way taking again the standpoint he had before he acted and relating the intentions and plans he then entertained instead of the completed deeds : Und wie er so ungebührlich gegen mich ausfällt (see 1. b of this article), da werd' ich ihn ins andere Zimmer nehmen und werd' ihn fragen, woher er das weiß (instead of da nahm ich ihn ins andere Zimmer und fragte ihn) (Engelien's *Grammatik der neuhochdeutschen Sprache*, p. 478).

6. The future perfect tense represents that an action or event will be completed at or before a certain time yet future. This clumsy form is usually avoided and replaced in common usage by the perfect : Wenn er diese Bedingung nicht vor Morgen erfüllt haben wird (or erfüllt hat), so ist der Vertrag nichtig. When the idea of completion is not prominent, it can be replaced by the present or future : Sobald du etwas erfährst, or erfahren wirst, telegraphiere. We also find the past tense instead of the future perfect : Es ist nicht das letzte Mal, daß ich mich hier befand (Raabe's *Frau Salome*, chap. vii). Das Trudchen war da ganz gut aufgehoben, bis wir es abholen (id., *Meister Autor*, chap. vii). Viel gibt es nicht ; doch nimm damit vorlieb ; | wir hauen ein, bis nichts mehr übrig blieb (Fulda's *Talisman*, 1, 5). Wenn der Rebel verzog und die Hörner der Sachsen zum Kampf laden, so ruft mich (Lienhard's *König Arthur*, 5).

a. Though not so common in the sense of a future perfect, it is often, on the other hand, used to express probability or supposition, to represent an action as probably finished, or to state a supposition concerning some past act, often accompanied by wohl : Er wird jetzt wohl geschrieben haben He has probably written by this time. Er wird wohl der Täter gewesen sein He was probably the perpetrator. In the interrogative form it expresses wonder : Wo wird er die Nacht zugebracht haben ? (Lessing's *Minna*, 1, 1) I wonder where he has passed the night.

MOOD.

166. Mood is a grammatical form denoting the style or manner of predication. There are three moods in German, the *indicative*, *subjunctive*, and *imperative*. These moods are used much as they are in English, except that the subjunctive has a much wider field of usefulness. Only the subjunctive needs especial treatment. The so-called conditional (mood) is only a periphrastic form of the subjunctive, whose place it may take in conditional sentences, and hence it is treated along with the subjunctive.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

167. The subjunctive is used when the speaker or writer wishes to represent something not as a fact but as only planned or desirable, supposable, probable, possible, conditional, contrary to fact, or as resting on the statement of another, or mere hearsay. All these different uses of the subjunctive may be classified under two general heads—the *optative* subjunctive, which represents the statement as desired, and the *potential* subjunctive, which represents the statement as possible. Out of the potential subjunctive has developed more or less clearly the subjunctive of *indirect statement*, which is employed not to represent the statement as possible, but merely to indicate *indirectness* of statement. See **168.** II. A, second paragraph. In the following discussion this subjunctive is treated under the head of the potential with which it is closely connected. This subjunctive of indirect statement should not be confounded with the subjunctive of *indirect discourse* treated in **170** and **171**, which is a broader category including also the optative and potential ideas.

The tense employed is often a point of vital importance to the meaning, and hence instead of grouping the different uses of the subjunctive under these two leading heads the different heads are treated under the different tenses. The two following groups stand out in general quite distinctly from each other: 1. The Subjunctive of Principal Tenses (present, present perfect, future, future perfect). 2. The Subjunctive of Historical Tenses (historical present, past, past perfect, the conditionals).

The student should bear in mind in reading the following articles that the subjunctive has been largely replaced in the language of the North by the indicative in colloquial speech, while in serious prose it still has a conspicuous place. This will often account for the use of the subjunctive and indicative in the same category.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF PRINCIPAL TENSES.

168. In principal tenses the subjunctive represents the statement not as an actual fact, but yet as a desire so reasonable that it is entertained with hopes of realization, or it represents something that is with considerable assurance regarded as possible or supposable. The special cases under these general heads are the following:

I. *Optative Subjunctive.* A principal tense of the subjunctive is used in the following expressions of will :

1. In principal clauses :

A. *Hortatory Subjunctive.* A present subjunctive is often used to complete the wanting forms of the imperative ; see 177. I. A.

B. *Sanguine Optative.* A present subjunctive is often used to express a wish which in all probability may be realized : *Lange lebe der König* Long may the king live. *Geb' Gott* may God grant. *So sei es* Let it be thus. *Das wolle Gott* May God see to it. *Geh' es Ihnen gut!* (Wilbrandt's *Die Tochter des Fabricius*, 1, 10). This wish, however, is more commonly, except in a few set expressions as the foregoing, expressed by the subjunctive of *mögen* and *wollen* with a dependent infinitive : *Wäge es mir nun vergönnt sein, das Begonnene zu Ende zu führen* (Wilmanns' *Deutsche Grammatik*, Vorrede). *Gottes Gnade wolle mit Euch sein* (Bismarck to his wife, Oct. 1, 1850).

a. In A and B normal, or more commonly question or inverted order may stand : *Er lebe hoch!* (used in toasts and cries of approval). *Höl' ihn der Teufel!* May the devil take him! *Es lebe die Freiheit!* *Er möge* or *möge er* vollkommen glücklich werden! Of course the sentence has inverted order if it begins with an adverb : *Lange lebe der König!*

b. Sometimes, though much more rarely than the pres. tense, the present perfect is used in wishes. It is employed to express the wish that some desired result may be accomplished in the future : *Doch er habe | umsonst sich der Verdammnis übergeben!* (Schiller's *Jungfrau*, 2, 2) May he in vain have given himself over to perdition!

C. The present subjunctive is in logical reasoning much used in laying down one or more desired propositions, from which conclusions are to be drawn : *Die Figur a b c sei ein gleichschenkliges Dreieck ; b d sei ein Lot auf der Grundlinie* Let the figure a b c be an isosceles triangle and b d a perpendicular line on the base, &c.

2. In subordinate clauses :

A. *Concessive Subjunctive.* The present subjunctive is used in subordinate clauses to concede, grant, admit that something may be true, but the indicative in the main clause, on the other hand, affirms that the assertion of the main clause is, in spite of this admission, to be maintained and defended : *Der Berg sei auch so hoch*, or *Sei der Berg auch so hoch* (or quite commonly *Ist der Berg auch so hoch*, or *Mag der Berg auch so hoch sein*, or *Der Berg mag auch so hoch sein*), *ich ersteige ihn* Be the mountain (or Although the mountain be, or Let the mountain be) ever so high, I will climb it. *Nein, es gibt kein Wiederfinden, heiße es Himmel oder Hölle* (Wiesner's *Die schwarze Dame*). *Wo der Berg auch liege* (or quite commonly *liegen mag*, or *liegt*), *ich ersteige ihn*. *Man kann es ihm nicht recht machen, was man auch tue, tun mag, or tut.* Welche Entscheidung auch hier gefaßt werde (also gefaßt werden mag, or gefaßt wird), sie wird niemals eine Schanze sein für die Versammlung (v. Gagern, *Frankfurter Nationalversammlung*). *Was immer du seist, ich glaube, wir werden heut nicht spielen* (Schnitzler's *Der grüne Kakadu*, p. 118). The auxiliary *fönnen* is also used, but is not so common as *mögen* : *Das mag* or (here and in similar expressions, but not freely) *fann wohl wahr sein, es ändert doch nichts an der Sache.*

a. Note that the word-order in the concessive clause is either normal or question order, if not introduced by a conjunction, relative pronoun, or relative adverb, in which cases the transposed order is of course used. However, if the auxiliary *fönnen* is used instead of *mögen*, normal or inverted order is usually employed. The use of the normal or question order indicates clearly that the clause was originally an independent proposition. It has retained its original form, although it has become logically subordinate.

After a conjunction, as *obgleich*, &c., the mood is usually indicative: *Obgleich ich ihn seit langem nicht gesehen hatte, erkannte ich ihn doch augenblicklich*. Occasionally the subjunctive appears here in accordance with older usage: *Ob auch die Wolke sie verhülle, die Sonne bleibt am Himmelzelt* (Raabe's *Alte Nester*, chap. xv). In rather choice language the subjunctive of *mögen* is found instead of the indicative when the normal or question order is used: *Er will unter allen Umständen die Wahrheit wissen, möge sie lauten wie sie wolle* (Bellermann's *Schillers Dramen*, p. 226).

B. *Sanguine Subjunctive of Purpose*. This subjunctive of purpose represents the statement only as desired or planned, but implies the hope that the desire or plan will be realized. It is found: (1) After verbs of advising, beseeching, warning, wishing, willing, demanding, &c., which of themselves indicate a purpose or design: *Er wünscht, daß es geschehe* He wishes that it may happen. The idea of *willing*, &c. is often not expressed at all, but implied in the governing verb: *Und außerdem schreibst du ihm, daß er mir seine Photographie und die deiner Schwestern schicke* (Raabe's *Horn von Wanza*, chap. viii). The idea of *willing*, &c., is often contained in a noun: *Meister Richwin hatte zu Hause den strengsten Befehl gegeben, daß man den Hund wohl eingesperrt halte* (Riehl's *Der stumme Ratsherr*, II). (2) After other verbs, if the subordinate clause itself expresses the purpose of the action of the principal verb: *Man ißt, damit man lebe* One eats in order that he may live. (3) In choice language also in relative clauses expressing a purpose, and in early N.H.G. after the temporal conjunctions *bis* and *ehe*: *Schickt einen sichern Boten ihm entgegen, der auf geheimem Weg ihn zu mir führe* (Schiller). *Und nun male einen Pfeil, der hinüberweise nach der andern Seite* (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. xxxvi) And now draw an arrow which will point to the other side. *Um Zion willen so will ich nicht schweigen | vnd vmb Jerusalem willen so will ich nicht inne halten | Bis das jre Gerechtigkeit aufgehe wie ein glantz | vnd jr Heil entbrenne wie eine Fackel* (Isa. lxii. 1). For *ehe* see Psalm xxxix. 14. Sometimes still after *bis*, provided the verb of the principal proposition is in an historical tense: *Das junge Brautpaar machte heut' gewissermaßen die Honneurs des Hauses und stand wartend, bis alles Platz genommen habe* (Jensen's *Jenseits des Wassers*, V).

a. This subjunctive is much used in indirect discourse after the verbs in (1), but it must be noticed that after a historical tense it is itself often attracted into a historical tense (see 169. I. C. a). Thus like the subjunctive in indirect discourse in general its form fluctuates after historical tenses between that of principal and that of historical tenses, but without any difference in meaning.

b. After the verbs in (1) the indicative is now preferred, to denote a positive expression of the will: *Ich will, daß er kommt*. If the indicative is used, the tense is often attracted into a past tense after a past tense: *Und diese Furcht vor den Menschen erschien ihr so natürlich, so notwendig — so zugehörig zu ihrem Schicksal. Wie konnte er verlangen, daß sie frei davon war* (H. Böhlau).

The subjunctive in (2) has been gradually declining. At present the indicative is very often used instead of the subjunctive, especially colloquially in the North, as the present tendency is to look forward and imagine the design as accomplished rather than to regard the statement as merely planned: *Soll ich den Gemeinen Heiderieter (name) zurückschicken, daß er die Mannfanone löst?* (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, chap. i). *Sie möchte etwas recht Hübsches sagen, damit man freundlich mit ihr ist* (H. Böhlau). *Es wär' doch gut, wenn er es bald erfährt, damit ihm der Mund gestopft ist* (Hirschfeld's *Agnes Jordan*, 5).

The subjunctive in (3) is now largely replaced by the indicative in colloquial language.

C. Optative in Conditions. The optative subjunctive occurs here in two forms:

a. Instead of a subordinate clause with *wenn* we may use a clause with a hortatory subjunctive, which has normal order and was originally independent, but has become logically subordinate: *Einer trage des andern Last | so werdet jr das gesetz Christi erfüllen* (Gal. vi. 2). *Bald, es fenne nur jeder den eigenen, gönne dem andern | seinen Vorteil, so ist ewiger Friede gemacht* (Goethe's *Vier Jahreszeiten*, 74).

b. In M.H.G. a hortatory subjunctive was very common in clauses introducing an exception: *des sint ir iemer ungenesen | got welle dan der arzât wesen* (*Armer Heinrich*, variant of the Strassburg manuscript) *You cannot be cured* (, if, however, a cure is possible) *God must* (or *let God*) *then be the physician*. We usually introduce the subordinate clause in English by *unless*, *if not*, and indeed a negative is found here in M.H.G. In the Heidelberg manuscript this passage reads: *des sint ir iemer ungenesen | got enwelle der arzât wesen*. In this reading, however, the subjunctive is a potential, as explained in II. E. *b*, below. Some scholars claim an ellipsis of the negative *en* in the first reading, and construe the subjunctive there also as a potential. Both constructions, the optative and potential, existed in M.H.G.; the former alone survives. It was quite frequent in early N.H.G., not infrequent in the classical period, and still occasionally occurs in poetry or choice prose: *Und so jemand auch kempffet | wird er doch nicht gekrönet | er kempffe denn recht* (2 Tim. ii. 5). *Und kommt man hin, um etwas zu erhalten, | erhält man nichts, man bringe denn was hin* (Goethe's *Tasso*, i, 4). *Wohin er (i. e. Gott) uns stellt, da müssen wir ausharren, er rufe uns denn selber ab* (Spielhagen's *Freigebornen*, p. 176). *Aber ein Mensch kann sich nichts nehmen, es werde ihm denn gegeben vom Himmel* (Sudermann's *Johannes*, 5, 8). Here, as so often elsewhere, the present subjunctive yields frequently to the past subjunctive: *Die Nürnberger denken* (in the North usually *hängen*) *keinen, | sie hätten ihn denn vor* (Schiller's *Räuber*, 2, 3).

This old construction is not now common in prose, except in *es sei denn*, or *es wäre denn unless*, and in case of *müssen* with a dependent infinitive. The two expressions *es sei denn* and *es wäre denn* differ from each other just as in general the pres. subj. differs from the past subj. The former expresses more assurance: *Ich tue es nicht, es sei denn daß er kommt und darum bittet* *I will not do it, unless he comes and begs me to do it*, but *Ich tue es nicht, es wäre denn daß er kommen und*

darum bitten sollte *I will not do it, unless he should come and beg me to do it.* The expression *es wäre denn* is often replaced by the past subj. (for present or future time) or past perfect subj. (for past time) of müssen with a dependent infinitive with normal word-order in the subordinate clause: *Das werde ich nie von ihm glauben, er müßte es mir denn selbst sagen.* Sie hing süßen Fragen und Vorstellungen nach, denn Elmar hatte beim Blindfuß, als er sie haschte, Worte fallen lassen, die nicht mißdeutet werden konnten, er hätte denn ein schändlicher und zweizüngiger Lügner sein müssen (Fontane's *L'Adultera*, chap. viii).

Elsewhere this construction is usually replaced by a clause with *ohne daß* (169. 2. D), or remains in altered form, the *denn* remaining or dropping out, and the subjunctive becoming indicative in accordance with the general trend toward the declarative form of statement: *Ich laß nicht ab, ihr gebt den Gefangenen denn heraus* (Grillparzer). „*Ich lasse dich nicht fort, Ansaß,*“ rief sie, „*du sagst mir denn, was du im Sinn hast*“ (Wichert's *Ansas und Grita*). *Denn niemals kehrt' er heim, er bracht' euch etwas* (Schiller's *Tell*, 4, 3). *Kein Becher ward geleert, du hattest ihn | gefüllt, kein Brot gebrochen und verteilt, | es kam aus deinem Korb* (Hebbel's *Nibelungen*, III, V, 9). Even in case of the verb *sein* we find the indic. for the expression of reality: *Der Arzt hatte niemals etwas in ihrem Hause zu schaffen, es war denn, daß er bei der Ankunft eines neuen Weltbürgers zugegen war* (Telmann).

D. *Optative in Relative Clauses.* This subjunctive is found in the following groups :

a. *Hortatory Subjunctive.* A relative clause often contains a hortatory subjunctive, which is translated into English by *we wish, it is desired, &c.* Von dem Erbe'schen Hefchen: „*Verdeutschung der Kunstausdrücke in der Schule*“ ist ein Neubruck notwendig geworden und wird demnächst ausgegeben, worauf alle Mitglieder und Freunde des Allgemeinen deutschen Sprachvereins aufmerksam gemacht seien *to which we especially desire to call the attention of all the members, &c.*

b. A sanguine optative is also used here to express a wish: *unser König, den Gott erhalte our king, whom, we pray, God may keep.* Also in clauses with reference to the thought in another clause: *Was würden wir tun, wenn — was Gott verhüte (or verhüten möge) — ein Unglück geschehen sollte?* If some misfortune should occur—which, however, I hope God may prevent—what would we do?

c. For a subjunctive of purpose in relative clauses see B. (3), above.

E. *Optative in Substantive Clauses :*

a. Hortatory subjunctive in subject clauses: *Es ist billig, daß man ihn unterstütze (= man unterstütze ihn let the people help him) It is fair that the people help him.* Es geziemt dem Manne, daß er auch das Schwerste willig tue (= er tue auch das Schwerste willig).

b. Sanguine Optative :

(1) In subject clauses: *Daß du an unserer Freude teilnehmest, ist unser inniger Wunsch.*

(2) In object clauses: [*Ich wünsche,*] *Daß er vollkommen glücklich werden möge!* If the governing proposition is expressed, this subjunctive belongs to B. (1), above.

F. *Optative in Adverbial Clauses.* This subjunctive is occasionally used here in categories other than those previously described, especially after *so wahr* and *so* (= *wenn*): *In meinen Armen will ich dich durch das Leben tragen, so wahr Gott mir helfe* (Raabe's *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, chap. x). *Nein, nein, so Gott mir helfe* (Storm's *Chronik von Grieshuus*, p. 110).

II. *Potential Subjunctive.*

The potential subjunctive of principal tenses represents the statement not as an actual fact, but as something which is quite possible, probable, plausible, supposable, or as credible, but yet as only resting upon the testimony of others, or upon the subjective view of the speaker. This potential must not be confounded with the *unreal potential* (see 169. 2) of historical tenses, which represents on the other hand the statement as barely possible, quite doubtful, or even as in conflict with fact or impossible. In the present period of the language the tendency is to observe this distinction between the subjunctive of principal and that of historical tenses; but, as will be seen below, there are still many survivals of an earlier usage, which always, irrespective of the meaning, required, as at present in English, a historical tense of the subordinate verb, whenever it depended upon a historical tense: *Er sagte, er sei krank*, or often placing the tense of the subordinate clause in accord with that of the principal clause: *Er sagte, er wäre krank*. The thought in both of these sentences is exactly the same, but in other sentences a sharp distinction is often made between principal and historical tenses of the subjunctive, the former expressing a probability, the latter an improbability of the truth of the statement. The tendency to distinguish between the principal and historical tenses of the subjunctive is stronger than the tendency to place the tense of the subordinate verb in accord with the tense of the principal verb, but as this growing tendency has not yet gained a complete victory, there is some confusion.

The potential subjunctive of principal tenses is now only employed in subordinate clauses, but it has nevertheless a wide field of usefulness, as will be seen in the following detailed statement of its uses:

A. *Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse.* The potential subjunctive of principal tenses is used in indirect discourse after verbs of *saying, thinking, feeling, &c.*, to represent the indirect statement in the subordinate clause not as absolutely true, but only as possible, probable, plausible, or as the individual opinion or feeling of the person spoken of, or as a question in his mind: *Titus pflegte zu sagen, der Tag, an welchem er nichts Gutes tue, sei für ihn verloren. Ich zweifle noch, ob er der rechte Mann hierfür sei.*

This subjunctive often differs markedly from other forms of the potential, as it is frequently no longer a potential pure and simple, but is often merely a grammatical form to express *indirectness* of statement. See G. a. (2), 2nd par., and *b*, below. The subjunctive in this use has a broad field, not being confined to one grammatical category, and hence may reappear in a number of the following groups. It should, however, be carefully noticed that this sub-

junctive may not only differ in each category from the other potential in the same category in its lack of real potential character, but also in its much greater frequency of use, as it has become very productive in its employment as a formal indication of indirect statement.

This use of the subjunctive and the similar use in indirect questions are the most common in the language, and are treated at considerable length in 171-173.

B. *Clauses of Manner.* The potential subjunctive is often used in these clauses to indicate that the comparison rests upon plausible grounds, or is the subjective view of the speaker: *Es war ihm, als höre er noch einmal durch den Regen und Wind den Nachtwächter von Wanza in der Ferne die Stunde rufen* (Raabe's *Horn von Wanza*, chap. xi). *Wir war zuweilen, als sei ich von unserm lieben Gott geschieden* (Freitag's *Rittmeister*, chap. ix) It seemed to me sometimes as if I were separated from God and his goodness.

a. This use of the subjunctive must not be confounded with the unreal potential of a historical tense, which implies that the comparison is unreal and contrary to fact; see 169. 2. B.

b. Where the comparison is made in quite a positive tone, the indicative is now quite commonly used in such clauses: *Trotzdem gewinnt es den Anschein, als ob die auswärtige Politik Englands auch nach dem Austritte Lord Roseberys und dessen Ersetzung durch Lord Salisbury von Fehlschlägen heimgesucht wird* (*Deutsche Rundschau*).

C. *Plausible Subjunctive in Clauses after a Negative or a Question.* If the principal clause contains some expression of negative force, such as a negative adverb, adjective, or pronoun, a verb with negative force, or if it contains a question, a positive of an adjective or adverb preceded by *zu* and followed by *als daß*, or the comparative of an adjective or adverb followed by *als* (or less commonly *denn*) *daß*, the verb of the subordinate clause may in choice language stand in the subjunctive of a principal tense to indicate that the statement is not thoroughly established and must be taken with some reserve, or regarded as a subjective view: *Nimmer findet er den Heiligen, der an ihm ein Wunder thut* (*Uhland*). *Keiner ist, der noch aufrecht stehe, als ich ganz allein* (Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, II. p. 203). *Nichts ist, daß die Gewaltigen hemme* (Schiller). *Wir ist kein Volk bekannt, das die Sprachreinigung so entschieden und geschlossen verteidige, das dem Fremdworttaumel so unentwegt und mit so großem Erfolge zu Leibe gehe, wie das dänische* (E. Mogk in *Sprachentwicklung und Sprachbewegung bei den nordgermanischen Völkern*, 1897). *Er sagt weder, wie es heißt, noch wer der Verfasser desselben sei; geschweige daß er es für das rührendste von allen Stücken des Euripides erkläre* (Lessing). *Wenn sie weise spricht, so fehlt (with negative force) noch viel, daß sie gemessen handle* (Goethe) *If she does act wisely she comes far from acting properly. Wo ist der Beherzte, der tauche in diese Tiefe nieder* (Schiller). *Die Erklärung ist viel zu weitläufig, als daß sie bei Entscheidung der vorhabenden Streitsache im Geringsten zu brauchen sei* (Lessing). *Es ist uns besser | ein Mensch sterbe für das Volk | denn daß das ganze Volk verderbe* (John xi. 50). *Wir alle wissen, daß in gegebener Lage der Offizier, der Soldat lieber blindlings kühn den ersten Schritt tun soll und muß, als daß er hin und her erwäge: soll ich oder soll ich nicht* (Liliencron's *Krieg und Frieden*).

a. Although the subjunctive of a principal tense is still found here, especially in choice language, it is more common to-day to change the point of view a little and use a historical tense here, thus representing the statement as possible rather than as probable. From the idea of possible error which lies in the historical tenses of the subjunctive has arisen the very common use of these tenses to express a statement modestly or cautiously. This construction is so important for the English-speaking student that the examples in 169. 2. C should be studied very carefully.

D. *Plausible Subjunctive in Negative Clauses after a Negative or Question.* Where the principal proposition is a question, or where there is a negative in the principal proposition and a negative adverb, or negative conjunction (ohne daß, or daß nicht), or a negative relative (wer nicht, or welcher nicht) in the subordinate clause, the verb in the subordinate clause may in choice language be in the subjunctive of a principal tense, to represent the statement or indicated result as probable: Wie wird sie einzelne Fragmente ertragen, ohne daß sie sie nicht (pleonastic; see 223. XI. B. a) auch zum Ganzen dicke? (Herder's *Religion*, 7, 69). Da ist keine dürstige Nessel, kein Beilchen im Busch, das nicht durch heimliche Riten das Licht suche (Lienhard's *König Arthur*, 1). Doch dürfen wir unsere Schweizertheorie nicht verlassen, ohne daß ihr von uns auch Gerechtigkeit widerfahre (Goethe). Er kehret nie | von einer Reise wieder, daß ihm nicht | ein Drittel seiner Sachen fehle (Goethe's *Tasso*, 3, 4). So wird es schwerlich fehlen (with negative force), daß man nicht meistens den ehrwürdigen Alten schände (Bürger). Was kann mich hindern (with negative force), daß mein verlangender Geist nicht von Sphäre zu Sphäre irre? (Wieland). The two negatives or a question and a negative clause in such sentences render the force of the subordinate clause affirmative. The negative in the subordinate clause after an ohne daß which follows a negative or a question, as in the first sentence, or after a word with negative force and also modified by a negative (nicht, schwerlich, kaum, wenig), or unmodified, standing in a question, as in the last two sentences, is not so common now as earlier in the period; see 223. XI. B. a. The negative in such clauses is now usually dropped, and the meaning remains the same. The subjunctive in all the above sentences is replaced by the indicative when it is desired to represent the statement as a fact. The subjunctive here can also, as in C, be replaced by a subjunctive of a historical tense; see C. a.

E. *Possible Conditions.* In most conditions that are represented as probable or possible the indicative is now used as in English: Ich gehe nicht, wenn es regnet I shall not go if it rains.

A subjunctive—the plausible subjunctive—is only used after falls if, in case that, es sei denn daß unless: Und als der alte Herr sich auf sein Sofa gestreckt hatte und sie ihn gut zugedeckt und ihm die Birne der elektrischen Klingel auf das Tischchen an seiner Seite hingelegt, falls er etwas brauche, schlich sie sich verstohlen davon (Ompteda's *Cécilie von Sarryn*, chap. ii). For an example with es sei denn daß see 279. c. This subjunctive can also be replaced here by the subjunctive of a historical tense; see C. a. The indicative is also used here; see 279. c.

a. The conjunction *falls* is derived from the noun *Fall case*, and can be replaced by the phrase *im Falle daß*. This explains the use of the subjunctive here, which originated in attributive substantive clauses after *Fall*; see G. b.

b. In M.H.G. a plausible subjunctive was very common in negative clauses with the negative particle *ne* or *en* *unless, if not*, introducing an exception: *wir sin vil ungescheiden, ez entuo danne der tôt* *We shall remain unseparated if death does not part us* (lit. *if death do it not*). Some see in the expression *es sei denn* *unless* a survival of this old construction with suppressed *ne*. It seems, however, more probable that *sei* is an optative subjunctive, and belongs to the hortatory category explained in I. 2. C. b.

F. Plausible Subjunctive in Relative and Interrogative Clauses:

a. In attributive relative and interrogative clauses. Relative clauses: *sie . . . ohn Zweifel nit mehr gewesen denn igt sein mag ein arm Hausmagd, die da thu, was man sie im Haus zu thun heiße* (according to b. (2), below) (Luther). *Wo er uns nunmehr wie ein Kind von seinen Plänen für die nächste Zukunft sprach, als von dem Selbstverständlichsten, was auf dieser Erde von jedermann vorgenommen werden könne* (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 113). *So denkt der junge Mann und im Überschwang des Glücks suchte er jemand, der ihm helfe seine Gedanken tragen* (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, VII). The subjunctive is most common here after an imperative or optative: *Gott bewahre dich vor einem Nachbar, der dir soviel Böses tue und dir soviel Verdruß mache* (Claudius). This subjunctive is now in general rather rare except after a negative proposition, as described in D. The past subjunctive is more common here as explained in C. a. The indicative is still more common, as the tendency is to regard the statement as a fact. The subjunctive of principal tenses, however, is the rule, if the relative clause is part of an indirect statement, even though the governing substantive itself does not stand in a subjunctive clause with the outward form of indirect discourse: *Die Regierung der Vereinigten Staaten beschwerte sich über die Landung sovieler Armen, welche manche europäische Regierung fortschickte*.

Interrogative clauses are introduced by *ob whether*, or some interrogative adjective or adverb: *Die Frage, wie er zu dieser Auffassung komme, verblüffte ihn*. The subjunctive here, i. e. in indirect questions, is quite common.

b. In substantive relative clauses:

(1) As subject or predicate. As subject: *Komme, wer wolle, ich bin nicht zu Hause*. As predicate: *Und wer der Dichtkunst Stimme nicht vernimmt, | ist ein Barbar, er sei auch, wer er sei*. This subjunctive is only found in a few set expressions where the governing verb is in the optative (especially the concessive) subjunctive.

(2) As object: in a few set expressions after a concessive subjunctive: *er sage, was er wolle. Es koste, was es wolle*. Also occasionally elsewhere: *der aufkeimende Trieb der Liebe findet, was er ergreife* (Schiller's *Menschenfeind*, scene 8) *love springing up like a shoot finds something to which it may cling*. Except after the concessive subjunctive the past subjunctive is more common here.

c. In substantive interrogative clauses. This subjunctive is very common in clauses introduced by *ob whether*, or some interrogative pronoun or adverb.

(1) As subject: Wer den Brief abgesandt habe, ist noch nicht ermittelt worden.

(2) As object of a verb or a preposition: Ich habe gezweifelt, ob man dem Herrn Gramer ein poetisches Genie zugeschieben könne (Lessing).

The subjunctive in (1) and (2) is often not the pure potential, but a mere grammatical form for the expression of an indirect question, and hence may stand after such words as *sehen to see*, *vernehmen to learn*, *wissen to know*, &c., the meanings of which naturally preclude the idea of doubt: Du siehst, wie ungeschickt in diesem Augenblick ich sei (Goethe). Wenigstens würden sie dort wissen, wohin er sich gewendet habe (P. Heyse). Als er in wenigen vorläufigen Worten vernahm, worum es sich handle (*what the business was about*, a matter of fact, but subjunctive on account of the indirectness of the form), ordnete er an, daß, &c. (G. Keller's *Kleider machen Leute*). See also G. a. (2), 2nd par.

G. *Plausible Subjunctive in Substantive Daß Clauses*. This subjunctive is not infrequently used, especially in choice language, to represent some statement as probably true, or to indicate that the event or result in question is not altogether unlikely. The daß here may sometimes be suppressed. This subjunctive is often replaced by the past as described in C. a. Of course the indicative is used if it is desired to represent the statement as a fact. This subjunctive is used in the following relations:

a. In subject (or predicate) and object clauses:

(1) As subject or predicate. As subject: Denn es ist unmöglich | das Gott liege (199, 2. Division, 4) (Heb. vi. 18). Denn es geschieht, daß vor Gott ein Ackermann besser tue mit seinem Pflügen, denn eine Nonne mit ihrer Keuschheit (Luther). Es ist fast unmöglich, daß er die Abgeschmacktheit ganzer Seiten und Bogen nicht einsehe (G. Keller). Unter solchen Umständen war es ausgeschlossen, daß Friedrich den Dienst verlasse (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!* III). As predicate: Seine Antwort [war], er fürchte sich nicht (Rosegger).

(2) Object clauses. As object of a verb or a preposition: Die schluchzende junge Frau verstand ihn nicht so recht, aber sie verließ sich als gute junge Frau auch diesmal darauf, daß er recht habe (Raabe's *Wummig*, chap. xx).

The subjunctive in (1) and (2) is often not the pure potential, but a mere grammatical form for the expression of indirect statement, and hence may stand after such verbs as *beweisen to prove*, *sehen to see*, *versichern to assure*, *wissen to know*, *zeigen to show*, &c., the meanings of which naturally preclude the idea of doubt: Also hab ich mit unsern alten Liedern bewiesen, daß allein der Glaub' an Jesum Christum selig mach' (Alberus, 1539). Sie wußte, er werde doch nicht kommen (P. Heyse). Als dann aber ihre Führerin, Frau Paulsen, sie darauf aufmerksam machte, daß jede Stiftsberohnerin auch einen eigenen kleinen Keller besitze, da wurde sie ernsthaft (Ilse Frapan's *Mamsell Biene*). Ich war zugleich erheitert und entzückt, zumal der Vogel nach kurzer Pause zeigte, daß sein Reichthum noch lange nicht erschöpft sei (H. Seidel's *Der Neuntöter*).

b. In attributive clauses: Meine Herren, wir müssen uns den Fall vergegenwärtigen, daß die eine oder die andere Regierung nicht auf alle Bedingungen eingehe (*Vorparlament*, p. 63). In one form of this clause this subjunctive is now very common—in indirect discourse: ein eigenes Gefühl: er müsse den Ort kennen lernen (Hirschfeld's *Dämon Kleist*). Sie glaubten mich mit der Nachricht zu überraschen, daß ich schwind-

füchtig sei (ib.). The potential idea often disappears, the subjunctive not implying uncertainty, but merely indicating indirectness of statement: Man durchdenke alles das, was ich hier nur andeute, und man wird zu der Erkenntnis gelangen, der sprachliche Verkehr zwischen zwei Teilen sei auf das natürlichste, einfachste und gerechteste so zu regeln, daß jeder Teil in gleicher, nicht allzustarke Weise belastet werde (H. Schuchart in *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, No. 230, Jahrg. 1901). Mein ganzer Geldzugaplan . . . fiel in sich zusammen vor der süßen Gewißheit, daß sie mich liebe (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, XIV).

H. *Plausible Subjunctive in Clauses of Degree* (see 238. 3. D). This subjunctive is only found here in clauses of result (see 238. 3. D. 2), and only occurs there in the early part of the period, having since entirely disappeared: So wird mirs gehen | das mich todschlage wer mich findet (Gen. iv. 14).

THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF HISTORICAL TENSES.

169. The subjunctive of historical tenses is used to represent that which is wished for without much hope of realization, also that which is quite doubtful, possible, barely possible, impossible, contrary to fact, or that which merely exists in the imagination, or rests upon appearances without foundation in facts. This subjunctive is used both in principal and subordinate clauses. It has only two tenses—the past to express present time, the past perf. to express past time: (pres. time) Er sieht aus, als ob er krank wäre He looks as if he were sick; (past time) Er sieht aus, als ob er krank gewesen wäre He looks as if he had been sick. The past subjunctive often points also to the future, as is usually made clear by the context: Wenn ich so einen Mann haben sollte, der sich immer Gefahren aussetzte, ich stürbe im ersten Jahr (Goethe's *Götz*, 1, 3). In conditional sentences (see 2. E, below) in principal propositions, the past subjunctive can be replaced by the present conditional, and the past perf. by the perfect conditional. In S.G. and with increasing frequency elsewhere the past subjunctive is thus also in subordinate clauses replaced by the conditional, although the practice is frequently condemned by grammarians. The case mentioned in 2. E. Note 3 below will serve in general as an illustration and partial justification of this forbidden construction, which is now often found not only in conditional, but also in optative and concessive clauses and clauses of manner and elsewhere, as indicated below. See 1. A. a; 1. B. a; 2. B. a and C. b, below, and 190. 1. E. a.

This subjunctive often loses the element of unreality and is used merely to make a statement in a less positive tone than is expressed by the indicative, and hence is often called the subjunctive of modest or cautious statement. The especial cases are mentioned below under the different categories.

The following are the principal groups of this subjunctive:

1. The Optative Subjunctive:

A. The *unreal optative* subjunctive is used to express a wish that has no immediate prospect of realization, or towards the realization of which the speaker can himself do nothing. In these wishes the

question order is the rule, and the subjunctive is often accompanied by the adverb *doch*: *Käme er doch!* If he would only come! Past time: *Wäre er doch gekommen!* If he had only come! It is also common to put such optative sentences in the transposed order in the form of a subordinate clause introduced by *daß* or *wenn*: *O daß ich das Glück hätte, einen von euch bei mir zu haben!* *Wenn er doch noch lebte!* Such unreal optative sentences are in fact subordinate clauses of elliptical sentences, the principal proposition being suppressed: [*Ich wünschte,*] *Daß er gekommen wäre!* [*Ich würde mich freuen,*] *Wenn er doch noch lebte!*

The subjunctive of the simple verb is often replaced by the subjunctive of *mögen* or *können* with a dependent infinitive: *Wöchte er doch endlich zur Besinnung kommen!* *Ach, könnte ich euch doch nur einmal besuchen!*

The past subjunctive often loses in large measure the element of unreality, and is employed to express modestly an earnest wish or appeal: *Wöchte diese kurze Charakteristik zu weiteren Forschungen Anlaß geben!* (Richard M. Meyer in *Zeitschrift für deutsche Wortforschung*, II. p. 291). It is also often used in polite commands: *Wöchten Sie die Güte haben, mir zu folgen?* Would you be so kind as to follow me?

a. The conditional is frequently used here instead of the subjunctive of the verb, although this usage is quite generally condemned by grammarians: *Justinus Kerner schreibt: Würdest du ihn nur auch kennen!* (K. Mayer über Umland, 2, 183). *O, wenn doch der Herr Afessor mal kommen würde!* (Raabe's *Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 184). *Wenn sie [die Rosen] doch nicht welken würden!* (H. Böhlau's *Adam und Eva*, chap. vi). *O, wenn Sie sie kennen würden — wie ich!* (Hirschfeld's *Das grüne Band*, IV). See also 190. I. E. a.

b. In the colloquial and popular language of the North the indicative often replaces the subjunctive here as elsewhere: *Wenn wir man (= nur) erst draußen waren!* (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 73).

B. The *unreal concessive* subjunctive which stands in the subordinate clause implies that the conceded proposition upon which the conclusion is based is not a very probable one. Sentences in which this subjunctive thus stands in the subordinate clause are in respect to mood and tense in both principal and subordinate clause exactly like unreal conditional sentences (see 2. E, below): *Und wenn Sie mir goldene Berge gäben, daß würde ich nicht tun* Even if you should give me mountains of gold I would not do it.

a. The conditional is frequently used here in the subordinate clause, although this usage is quite generally condemned by grammarians. Thus a prominent German educator writes: *Wenn wir nun auch in Deutschland jene Einrichtung nachahmenswerter finden würden (instead of fänden), so würden uns doch alle übrigen Bedingungen fehlen.* See also 2. E. Note 3, below, also 190. I. E. a.

C. *Unreal subjunctive of purpose.* In the three groups enumerated in 168. I. 2. B, the unreal subjunctive of purpose is used to represent the thing desired or planned as not liable to be realized, or to represent it as only a faint possibility, or often as an actual possibility: (1) *Ich wollte, er wäre nicht gestorben. Ich wünschte, er käme.* The subjunctive here often loses the element of unreality and is used after the manner of the subjunctive of modest statement to express modestly a wish that may be fulfilled: *Darum bet' ich zu unserm Herrgott, er möcht' mir meine höchste Freud' geben* (Anzengruber's

Schandfleck, chap. xii). Und das hat damals einen so großen Eindruck auf mich gemacht, daß ich dich bitten möchte, du machtest es auch so und ließeſt auch zwei Kuppen aufsteigen und auf der zweiten Kuppe stände die Kirche von Adamsdorf (Fontane's *Poggenpuhls*, chap. xii). (2) Könnt' ich als Leiche vor dir niederſinken, damit du blühend stündest und verjüngt (Uhland). Es ist nur zur Nachfrage, wenn mir einmal der Einfall käme, daß ich gleich vor die rechte Schmiede ginge (Goethe's *Götz*, 2, 4). (3) So beschloß man, einen patriotisch-dramatischen Abend zu veranstalten, der zugleich Gelegenheit böte, die fünf Schauspieler der höheren Geſellſchaft Frankfelds vorzuführen (Riehl). Ich wartete, bis das Haus verkauft wäre (Wilmanns). Ich habe gewartet, bis ich Sie 'mal allein träfe (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. vii). Es blieb ihm nichts übrig als abzuwarten, bis diese reuevolle Orgie sich erschöpft hätte (Ertl's *Die Stadt der Heiligen*). The subjunctive in (3) is not at all infrequent, while the sanguine subjunctive of purpose is here almost confined to relative clauses in choice language, being elsewhere usually replaced by the indicative.

a. After a historical tense this subjunctive cannot be distinguished in form from the *sanguine* subjunctive of purpose (168. I. 2. B), as the latter subjunctive is often attracted into a historical tense following the model of the principal verb: Er beſah, daß es geſchähe (also geſchehe). Here geſchähe is evidently the *sanguine subjunctive of purpose*, attracted into this tense by the past form beſah.

b. The subjunctive here is now often replaced by the indicative to represent vividly some possibility as actually realized: Die Rambergs, deine lieben Vettern und Vormünder, haben die Traute an Grobiſch verſuppelt. Einfach verſuppelt — nach allen Regeln der Kunst — jawohl! — damit du frei wurdest und dich verloben konntest (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, 2, 7).

2. The Unreal Potential Subjunctive is used:

A. In statements and questions direct and indirect:

(1) *In direct statements and questions.* In earlier periods the unreal potential subjunctive was established most firmly in indirect discourse and in other subordinate clauses. It is forcing its way more and more into independent propositions. Its use in subordinate clauses is treated at length in the different categories described below. It is employed in the principal proposition in the following cases:

a. In the principal clause of unreal concessive and unreal conditional sentences. This use is discussed in E, below.

b. In doubting inquiries or exclamations of surprise: Sollte Karl das getan haben? Can it be that Charles has done that? Wär's möglich? Könnt' ich nicht mehr, wie ich wollte? (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 1, 4). Er hätte jedes Hindernis beſiegt, | und in dem eignen Willen ſeiner Tochter | ſollt' (past subj.) ihm der neue Streit entſtehn? (id., *Die Piccolomini*, 3, 8) Can it be that he has overcome every obstacle only to find in the wilfulness of his own daughter a new source of opposition? Du wärst | ſo falſch geweſen? (ib., 5, 1) Can it be that you were so false? Dieß wäre Ihre Schwestern! Well! this is your sister, is it? Ei! daß wäre! You don't say so! Wo wäre der? Where in the world can he be? Wäre diese Sprache keine Täuschung? Is it really true or not that these utterances are no delusion? Noch eins. — Daß wäre? I have another thing to say yet.—What is it? It is in a similar manner often used to express joy, satisfaction over the

attainment of some end whose successful issue has seemed doubtful, or over a final resolution after an inner debate or struggle, or to express surprise or regret over some unexpected result: Gottlob, wir wären am Ziel! God be praised we are there at last! So hätte ich denn alles getan, was mir zu tun obliegt! And so I have actually done all that is incumbent upon me to do! Das wäre nun in Ordnung! That's in good shape now, I think! Nun machte sie als energische Frau einen Strich unter die ganze Episode und sagte sich: Damit wären wir fertig! Now, as an energetic woman, she inwardly decided to put an end to the whole (love) affair, and said to herself: 'Well! I guess that's ended!' So wären wir am Ende, Herr Professor (Freytag's *Journalisten*, 2, 1) So I suppose, Professor, we are through with each other (i. e. all friendship between us is past). This use of the subj. is often closely related to the following one.

c. This subjunctive often loses in large measure the element of doubt and unreality, and is employed to state a fact or truth modestly, politely, or cautiously, in a less positive and definite way than in the indicative: Sie dürften sich geirrt haben You may possibly have made a mistake. Das dürfte das Richtige sein That is probably correct. Ich wüßte wohl, was zu tun wäre I think I know what would be best to do. Nicht gut! Ich dachte doch! (Lessing's *Nathan*, 2, 1) You think I am not playing well? I rather think I am! Und so wär' ich für dies Jahr Meister (Goethe's *Egmont*, 1, 1) And so I guess I'm master-marksman for this year. Dürfte ich bitten, mir Bescheid sagen zu lassen? Might I ask you to send me word? So hätten wir doch wenigstens etwas zu stande gebracht. Bis dahin ist blutwenig geschehen (*Frankfurter Nationalvers.*, p. 841). Fast jeder hätte (subj. of cautious statement) den Geistlichen etwas zu sagen gehabt (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Glaubenslos*, chap. v) *Almost every one had something to say, &c.*

It is very common in introducing a wish: Ich wünschte (the present indic. ich wünsche has more of the bluntness of a command), Sie schenken mir Gehör I wish you would be so kind as to grant me a hearing.

(2) *In indirect discourse*, to indicate that the statement is improbable or contrary to fact: Was? [Sagen Sie,] Räuber wären es gewesen, die uns anfielen?—Mörder waren es, erkaufte Mörder! (Lessing's *Emilia*, 3, 8). Unterworfen hatt' ich mich | dem Richterspruch der Zweihundvierzig, sagt ihr? | Ich habe keineswegs mich unterworfen (Schiller's *Maria Stuart*, 1, 7).

This subjunctive is also used to denote a faint or imagined possibility, also often an actual possibility, and hence to make a statement cautiously (see G. a. (2)): Dann machte er Experimente in der Chemie, daß ich manchmal heimlich die größte Angst ausgestanden habe, das Haus flöge auf mit uns allen (S. Junghans). Ein Kompliment an den Konrektor Gferbusch, und ob es morgen regnete? (Raabe's *Horacker*, chap. i) Give the assistant principal E. my compliments, and ask him whether there is any possibility of rain for to-morrow.

We cannot always distinguish the unreal subjunctive from the plausible subjunctive which has been attracted into a historical tense after a historical tense. Even after a present tense we are not absolutely sure that the historical tenses denote unreality, as

they often under the influence of dialect are used to report indirectly simple statements made by others; see 171. 2. A. *b. Note*. Thus a historical tense of the subjunctive in indirect discourse is often not a genuine unreal potential at all. See also G. a. (2), 3rd par., below, and 168. II. A.

The subjunctive of a historical tense is not now as widely used in indirect discourse as that of a principal tense, but nevertheless has a broad field of usefulness here, both as a pure potential and with less reason also as a grammatical form, to express merely indirectness of statement. This subjunctive of indirect discourse not being confined to one grammatical category, but assuming different grammatical forms, will reappear in a number of the following groups. It is discussed still more fully in 171-173.

B. Clauses of Manner. The unreal potential is used to indicate that there is little foundation of fact for the comparisons made, or to suggest a semblance or mere surmise: Ich halte Egmont hier, als ob ich ihm noch was zu sagen hätte (Goethe's *Egmont*, Act 4). Nettchen lehnte sich so zufrieden an ihn, als ob er eine Kirchen Säule wäre (G. Keller's *Kleider machen Leute*). Der Braune griff so tapfer aus, als wäre er stolz auf seinen sichern Herrscher The bay struck a brisk pace as if he were proud of his firm master. The subjunctive of a principal tense here has another meaning; see 168. II. B.

The historical tenses of the subjunctive are also often used here as elsewhere to express a possibility, or to make a statement cautiously: Ich bin nur eine alte Frau und kann mich also täuschen; aber — Kind, Kind, scheinen tut es mir doch so, als ob die Welt schriller würde (*were becoming, might be becoming*, subj. of cautious statement) (Raabe's *Horn von Wanza*, chap. xiv).

a. The conditional is frequently used here instead of the subjunctive, although this usage is quite generally condemned by grammarians: Sie ließen sich gar nicht bei uns sehen, wie wenn sie das Elternhaus gestilltlich fliehen würden (for fliehen) (G. Keller). See 180. 1. E. *a.*

b. We often find the ideas of unreality, semblance, possibility, probability expressed by a past indicative both in poetry and common prose, most frequently in the language of the North, where there is a general trend toward the indicative: Du hast genannt mich einen Vogelsteller, | als ob du selber keine Garne zogst (Freiligrath). Es war, als ob sich unter der Haut pulsierende Strähne hingegen (Auerbach's *Waldfried*). Mir war, als ob er mich plötzlich anders ansah als sonst, als ob er mir nicht mehr frei die Hand geben konnte (Hirschfeld's *Agnes Jordan*, 1, p. 42). Es war alles wie verhet und vernunschen. Als wenn das nicht wirkliche Häuser waren (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. v. p. 83). Sieh', mir ist, | als waren lauter Puppen sonst um mich | die Menschen alle (Schnitzler's *Der Schleier der Beatrice*, 1, p. 31).

Also the present indicative is frequently used here, when the reference is to present time or a general fact: Dummes Zeug! Als wenn du überhaupt 'n Liebsten hast! (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 41) As if you indeed had a lover! Wie kommen Sie hierher? Answer: Als ob man im Gramen ist! (Carl Busse). Ich weiß nicht, was das ist, daß ich nicht ordentlich lachen kann. Es ist, als wenn mein Gesicht gefroren ist (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. xi). Er ist den ganzen Tag in Unruh und kann doch Nachts nicht schlafen . . . als wenn . . . ich weiß nicht . . . als wenn er ein schweres Gewissen hat (id., *Das Heimatsfest*, 2, 3). Als ob ich nie allein fertig werd'! (C. Busse's *Kleinstadtliche*) You talk as if I never finished my work alone!

A principal tense of the subjunctive is often used here with a little different shade of meaning, namely to represent the comparison as assuming for a moment in fancy the guise of reality: Ihm war, er liege zum ersten Mal als Knabe mit einem unennbaren Gefühl süßen Schauers in der Sonne (Jensen's *Heimkunst*, V).

C. Unreal Potential Subjunctive in Clauses after a Negative or Question. If the principal proposition contains some expression of negative force, such as a negative adverb, adjective, or pronoun, a verb with negative force, or if it contains a question, a positive of an adjective or adverb preceded by *zu* and followed by *als daß*, or the comparative of an adjective or adverb followed by *als* (or less commonly *denn*) *daß*, or if the subordinate clause follows an affirmative proposition and is itself introduced by the negative conjunction *ohne daß* or (an)statt *daß*, the subjunctive of a historical tense is often used in the subordinate clause to indicate that the statement does not rest upon an absolutely sure foundation, and should be regarded only as a possibility, and often therefore to make a statement modestly or cautiously (see 168. II. C. a): Er ist nicht so weise, daß er alles wüßte He is not so wise that he could possibly know everything. Serlo hatte sie nicht einmal' zu Gastrollen gelassen, geschweige daß (238. 3. C. c) er ihnen Hoffnung zum Engagement gemacht hätte (Goethe's *Lehrjahre*, I. 4, 19) Serlo did not invite them to play for a single evening, to say nothing about giving them hopes of a permanent engagement. Ich kenne niemand, der genauere Kenntniß der Sache besäße (*who has a more accurate knowledge of the affair*, but in German the past subjunctive indicates the possibility of an error of judgment, and the desire on the part of the speaker to be modest and cautious). Haben Sie nicht stärkeres Papier? Answer: Ich habe etwas, das stärker ist, aber nichts in der gewünschten Farbe, das stärker wäre (cautious statement). Die Geschichte kennt keinen Staatsmann, der sich größere Verdienste um Oesterreich erworben hätte (cautious statement) als Prinz Eugen. Es steht kein Mensch so hoch, daß ich mich neben ihm zu schämen hätte (the subjunctive tempers the statement) There is no one in the world so great that I alongside of him need to be ashamed. Es fehlte (with negative force) viel, daß Werner einen vorteilhaften Eindruck gemacht hätte Werner came far from making a favorable impression. Es fehlte nur noch, daß er ihr geradezu den Ball verboten hätte He did all but positively forbid her going to the ball. Es fehlt nur noch, daß er stürbe. Wo ist der Mann, der das tun könnte? Where is the man who would be able to do that? Der Anblick war zu ergreifend, als daß ich ihn mit Worten schildern könnte The sight was too thrilling to be described by me in words. Ariostens Lob aus seinem Munde hat mich mehr ergetzt, | als daß es mich beleidigt hätte (Goethe's *Tasso*, 2, 1). Zum ersten Male, solange ich denken konnte, griff der Urgroßvater diese Herausforderung nicht auf, weniger (with negative force) wohl, weil er durchaus nichts zu entgegenen gewußt hätte, als aus allgemeiner Betrübniß und Müdigkeit (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxiii). Sie tat das weniger, weil sie selbst Vergnügen dabei gefunden hätte, als weil sie glaubte, ihn dadurch zu zerstreuen (ib., chap. xxiv). Er tat es, ohne daß ich das Geringste davon gewußt hätte. Und die Mutter schaffte ihnen noch braunleberne, feine Halbschuhe an, statt daß sie sich selbst

ein Sommermäntelchen gekauft hätte (H. Böhlau's *Adam und Eva*, chap. ii). Often after simple nicht: [It is difficult to-day to find a good poet.] Nicht, daß sich heutzutage etwa so viel weniger Gutes fände als früher, nein, nur das Mittelmäßige, Überflüssige und Glende hat sich in einer Weise vermehrt, daß es jammervoll ist (H. Seidel's *Poeta laureatus*).

a. Often the intention of the subordinate clause is to express an actual result or one which is confidently expected, and hence the indic. is often used here: Er tat es, ohne daß ich es wußte.

b. The conditional is frequently used here in the subordinate clause, although this usage is quite generally condemned by grammarians: Ihm hätte es häufig, selbst durch den ärgsten, giftigsten Schnupfen hindurch, dreißt nach mäßigem Stroh riechen können, ohne daß er sich darob gewundert haben würde (Raabe's *Wummel*, chap. vii). See also 190. I. E. a.

D. *Unreal Potential Subjunctive in Negative Clauses after a Negative or Question.* Quite frequently where the principal proposition is a question, or where there is a negative, or a positive of an adjective or adverb preceded by zu, or a comparative in the principal proposition and a negative adverb, or a negative conjunction (daß nicht or ohne daß), or a negative relative (der nicht or welcher nicht), or als daß in the subordinate clause, the verb in the subordinate clause is in the subjunctive of a historical tense: Wo ist ein Berg im ganzen Land, den er nicht bestiegen hätte? Noch nie ist eine Unwahrheit gesprochen worden, die nicht früher oder später nachteilige Folgen gehabt hätte (*which has not had evil results*, cautious statement). Er denkt zu edel, als daß er nicht die Wahrheit sagte He thinks too nobly not to speak the truth. Die Christen glauben mehr Armseligkeiten, als daß sie die nicht auch noch glauben könnten! (Lessing's *Nathan*, 2, 1) Christians believe too many miserable things not also to believe that. Sie können nicht hindern, daß die Menschen nicht nach dem Lichte blickten (past subj.) (Klinger) They cannot prevent people from looking towards the light. Er konnte nicht verhindern, daß nicht noch Hilfe hineingekommen wäre (Ranke). Wenig fehlte, daß Herzog Bernhard nicht ein ähnliches Schicksal erfahren hätte (Schiller). Ich bin nie in London, daß ich nicht das Museum besuchte I never go to London without visiting the museum. Er sprach nie, ohne daß er gefragt worden wäre. Niemand trat herein, ohne daß er von dem Spiegel zur Natur und von der Natur zum Spiegel sich nicht gern hin und wieder gewendet hätte (Goethe). The two negatives in such sentences, or a question, or zu + positive, or a comparative followed by a negative clause, render the force of the subordinate clause affirmative. The negative in the subordinate clause after an ohne daß that follows a question or a negative, as in the last sentence, or after a word with negative force and also modified by a negative (nicht, schwerlich, kaum, wenig), as in the fifth, sixth, and seventh sentences, is not so common now as earlier in the period; see 223. XI. B. a. The negative in such clauses is now usually dropped, and the meaning remains the same. Sometimes we find the negative in the subordinate clause wanting when the verb in the principal clause is not negative in force, but then the verb in the subordinate clause is always in the indic.: Denn niemals kehrt' er heim, er bracht' euch etwas (= ohne daß er euch or daß er euch nicht etwas gebracht hätte). For explanation of the indicative see 168. I. 2. C. b. As the

force of the subordinate clause in all the above cases is affirmative, we would naturally expect here the indicative, but usually we find the subjunctive, which modestly admits that there may possibly be some error. If, however, the statement is represented as a fact, the indic. must be used here: *Er konnte nicht verhindern, daß noch Hilfe hinein kam. Er kam niemals, ohne daß er ein Geschenk mitbrachte.*

a. When *nichts als* is used in connection with a verb with negative force, and the subordinate clause calls attention to the want of something necessary for completeness, the negative in the subordinate clause is retained, if the verb is in the indicative, but is omitted if the subjunctive is employed: *Dem Weine fehlt nichts, als daß er nicht völlig geklärt ist, or als daß er völlig geklärt wäre.*

E. *Unreal Conditions.* The unreal potential is also used in conditional sentences in which the conclusion rests upon a condition that is not likely to be fulfilled, or upon one which is contrary to the facts in the case. The principal clause has the conditional or subjunctive, the subordinate clause the subjunctive only, as illustrated in the following sentences:

Present Time.

a. *Ich würde den Brief schreiben, wenn ich Zeit hätte I would write the letter if I had time, or*

b. *Ich schriebe den Brief, wenn ich Zeit hätte (about equal in meaning to a; see Note 1).*

Past Time.

c. *Ich würde den Brief geschrieben haben, wenn ich Zeit gehabt hätte I would have written the letter if I had had time, or*

d. *Ich hätte den Brief geschrieben, wenn ich Zeit gehabt hätte (equal in meaning to c).*

Note 1. In the principal proposition the subjunctive is much more common than the conditional in case of modal auxiliaries and the passive of all verbs in both present and past time. Elsewhere, however, the two forms may be considered as equally good and common with the exception that the *present* conditional is more common in the principal proposition than the past subjunctive, at least so in ordinary prose, perhaps accounted for in part at least by the fact that the subjunctive forms are frequently not formally distinct from the indicative.

Note 2. The past indic. sometimes takes the place of both the past and past perf. subjunctive, either in the main or subordinate clause, to add more assurance or certainty to the tone of the assertion: *Mit diesem Pfeil durchschieß ich Euch, wenn ich mein liebes Kind getroffen hätte I would have surely shot this arrow through you, if I had hit my dear child (Tell to the tyrant Gessler). Kamst du nicht im rechten Augenblicke, so war ich verloren.* Thus also in suggesting in a tone of assurance a course of action that might have with profit been pursued in some emergency of the past: *Dir standen zwei Wege offen; entweder du tratest offen gegen jene Ränke auf, oder du nahmst deinen Abschied Two ways were open to you: you should have either openly stood up against those intrigues, or have given in your resignation.*

Note 3. From Luther's day up to the present, the conditional is found with increasing frequency even in good authors also in the subordinate clause as well as in the principal: *Wo aber jemand würde zu euch sagen (1 Cor. x. 28). Mit Vergnügen, wenn es etwas helfen würde (Raabe's Horacker, chap. vi). Wenn nun der Paster von Gansewinkel, Herr Christian Windler, alles dies und zwar in einem ähnlichen Tone wie sein Schweiß vertragen haben würde, so würden wir uns ganz gehersamst dafür bedanken, irgend eine Bürgschaft für den Erfolg der Rede zu übernehmen (ib., chap. viii).* As explained in 100. 1. E. a, the conditional is from a historical standpoint a form of the subjunctive, and hence the use of the former instead of the latter is, strictly speaking, not objectionable. They may continue as interchangeable, or, as suggested

in 190. 1. E. *a*, they may in time be differentiated. Grammarians, however, discourage the use of the conditional in the subordinate clause.

Note 4. Many sentences containing a subjunctive will upon study reveal themselves as a conditional sentence with the principal or subordinate clause suppressed: *Beinahe wäre ich gefallen (wenn mich nicht jemand gehalten hätte) I came very near falling (and would have fallen if some one had not seized me).* The conclusion omitted: *Sa wenn wir nicht wären, sagte die Laterne zum Mond. Da ging sie aus (What would the world do) If we were not, said the lantern to the moon. Thereupon it went out.*

1. The subjunctive of *modest* or *cautious statement*, which is a weakened potential with a suppressed conditional clause, is used quite frequently to make the statement of a truth *modestly* or *cautiously*, in a less positive and definite way than in the indicative: *Ich könnte noch manches sagen (wenn ich wollte, or wenn es verstatet wäre) I think I could say considerable yet (if I desired, or if I were allowed).* See also A. (1). *c*, above.

2. We have other conditional sentences than the ones described in the preceding articles. The conditional conjunctions given in 233. 3. F are used with the historical tenses of the subjunctive to denote a possible case, the subjunctive clause usually following a proposition containing an indicative: *Er war entschlossen, eine andere Stelle zu suchen, falls das, was ihm bei der „Kultur“ (name of a periodical) geboten wurde, nicht seinen Wünschen entspräche (Ompfeda's Eysen, chap. x).*

F. *Unreal Subjunctive in Relative and Interrogative Clauses.* This subjunctive is much used to represent the statement as possible and often to state an opinion modestly or cautiously.

a. Attributive relative or interrogative clauses. Relative clauses: *Da ist der Kahn, der mich hinübertrüge (Schiller's Tell, 1, 1). Die Welt kann dir nichts darbieten, was sie von dir nicht empfinde (Schiller's Menschenfeind, Act 8) which it does not receive from you, subj. of cautious statement. Wem wird auch das einfallen? Einem zum Exempel, der schwach wäre (might be) und ein stark Gewissen hätte (might have) (Goethe's Götz, 2, 1). Ich möchte gern einen Geldbeutel haben, der nie leer würde (Grimm's Märchen). Sie besann sich auf etwas, was sie erzählen könnte (S. Junghans). Unter den lebenden Sprachen eine oder mehrere auszuwählen, der oder denen eine bevorzugte Rolle zuzuteilen wäre, heißt nichts anderes als in einer kontinuierlichen Reihe eine Scheidelinie ziehen (H. Schuchardt). The subjunctive is here most common after a negative or a question, and is treated from this point of view in C and D, above.*

The subjunctive in relative clauses also occurs in unreal conditional sentences: *Er wäre der Letzte, den ich um Rat fragte [, wenn ich in Verlegenheit kommen sollte].*

Interrogative clauses are introduced by *ob whether*, or some interrogative adjective or adverb: *Jetzt warf man die Frage auf, ob man das Werk zu Ende führen könnte.*

b. In substantive relative clauses. It is very common in the following relations:

(1) As subject or predicate. As subject: *Wer sie nicht kannte | die Elemente, | ihre Kraft | und Eigenschaft, | wäre kein Meister | über die Geister (Goethe's Faust, Studierzimmer). Wer mir vorausgesagt hätte, daß die Arme meines Geistes so bald zerschmettert werden sollten, mit denen ich ins Unendliche griff, und mit denen ich doch gewiß ein Großes zu umfassen hoffte,*

wer mir das vorausgesagt hätte, würde mich zur Verzweiflung gebracht haben (id.). As predicate: Die Menschen sind nicht immer, was sie sein könnten.

(2) As object: Kaufe dir, was du gern hättest (Lessing's *Minna*, 2, 3).

c. In substantive interrogative clauses. This subjunctive is common in clauses introduced by *ob whether*, or some interrogative pronoun or adverb.

(1) As subject: Es fiel ihm nicht ein, wieviel davon sich sagen liesse.

(2) As object: Ich brütete, wie ich dich retten könnte (A. Hausrath).

The subjunctive in (1) and (2) is often not a pure unreal potential, but, as in 168. II. F. c. (2), 3rd line, only a grammatical form for the expression of an indirect question, the tense having been attracted into the form of a historical tense after a historical tense: Was mit dem Andree geschehen würde [or werde], kümmerte ihn nicht im Geringsten (P. Heyse). In such indirect questions a historical tense is not now in choice language so common as a principal tense.

G. *Unreal Potential Subjunctive in Substantive Daß-Clauses.* This subjunctive is very common to indicate a possibility, or to express a statement modestly or cautiously. The *daß* may be suppressed. This subjunctive is often used instead of the plausible subjunctive described in 168. II. G. Of course the indicative is used if it is desired to represent the statement as a fact.

This subjunctive is used in the following relations:

a. In subject (or predicate) and object clauses:

(1) As subject or predicate. As subject: Es täte not, ich ginge selbst hin. See also Matt. xviii. 6. As predicate: Was er am sehnlichsten wünschte, war, er hätte dich noch einmal sprechen können (L. Sütterlin).

(2) As object: Ich rechnete darauf, daß er ausbleiben könnte. Ich glaube, meine Herren, damit wäre (subj. of modest statement) in starken großen Unrissen genug von unserem Aufenthalt in Wien gesagt (*Frankfurter Nationalvers.*, p. 841). Na, dein Schwiegervater meint, du fühltest (subj. of cautious statement) dich hier wie der Fisch im Wasser (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, 2, 4). The context to this last passage shows very clearly that the speaker does not represent the statement as unreal or merely possible, but as his own personal view, and here seeks confirmation of it by cautiously representing it as the view of the father-in-law, in the hope of receiving an assuring reply.

There are also a few traces of a tendency to give the subjunctive here the idea of unreality: Da behaupten die Leute, Freunde in der Not wären selten And now people say that friends in time of need are scarce (which is not my experience). Ja, Knoten —, das sind sie, die Menschen, alle, wie sie gebaden sind, Beamtenknoten, Geldknoten, Berufsknoten! Und am knotigsten, wenn sie sich Lackstiefel anziehen, einen Frack darüber hängen und womöglich ein paar Orden dran stecken und sich einbilden, jetzt wären sie fein (Wildenbruch's *Neid*, p. 80). See also A. (2), above, and 171. 2. B. c.

The subjunctive in (1) and (2) is often not a pure potential, but, as in 168. II. G. a. (2), 2nd par., a mere grammatical form for the expression of indirect statement or discourse, the tense having been attracted into a historical tense after a historical tense: Er sagte es nicht, daß diese Lippen erkaltet wären, die so oft, noch gestern mit ihm

über alle Fragen der Menschen geredet (Ompteda's *Eysen*, chap. viii). Ich wußte wohl, daß es ohne Lärm nicht abgehen würde (P. Heyse). In such indirect discourse historical tenses are in general not now in choice language so common as principal tenses. It would be a gain for the language if they would disappear entirely except in the cases mentioned in 171. 2. B. a. This would leave room for the clearer development of the idea of possibility, unreality, and caution here. See also 171. 2. B. c.

b. In attributive clauses: Daß hat ihn so furchtbar gequält, Marie. Die Angst, er könnte nie etwas erreichen (Hirschfeld's *Mütter*, Act 4).

H. *Unreal Subjunctive in Clauses of Degree* (see 238. 3. D):

a. In clauses expressing a comparison (see 238. 3. D. i. A. a). This subjunctive is common here to express a possibility, or to make a statement modestly or cautiously: Er ist so bescheiden, wie ein Mann sein könnte.

b. In clauses expressing a restriction (238. 3. D. i. A. c). This subjunctive is used here to express a possibility: Ich bin nicht abergläubisch, versetzte Charlotte, und gebe nichts auf diese dunklen Anregungen, insofern sie nur solche wären (Goethe's *Wahlverwandtschaften*, chap. i).

c. In clauses expressing a result (see 238. 3. D. 2). This subjunctive is common here to express a possibility, or to make a statement modestly or cautiously: Die Luft ist so still, daß wir sie kommen hören könnten. Es (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*) ist, von seinem Kunstwert ganz abgesehen, dabei so deutsch, daß keine andere Nation der Erde es hätte hervorbringen können. Es ist speziell so norddeutsch, daß kein Süddeutscher an seine innerste Kraft herankönnte (Carl Busse im *Tag*, Nr. 11 vom 8. Januar 1902). Sie war so ergriffen, daß sie fast einen Weinrampf bekommen hätte (Ompteda's *Eysen*, chap. xxviii) *that she almost fell into hysterics*. Of course the indicative is used here to state an actual result.

I. *Unreal Subjunctive in Clauses of Time and Place*. The historical tenses of the subjunctive are used in adverbial clauses of time and place to denote possibility: Die Totengräber hatten über dem Sarge eine Art Gewölbe aus Brettern hergestellt, um ihn später wieder leichter ausgraben zu können, wenn die Gruft fertig gemauert wäre (Ompteda's *Eysen*, chap. ix). Von meinen Schülern aber werde ich niemals weichen, wo eine Gefahr sie bedrohen könnte (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. xlii). See also 274. b; 275. b.

J. *Unreal Subjunctive in Clauses of Cause*. The historical tenses of the subjunctive are used here to denote possibility: Ich tue es gleich, weil es heute noch regnen könnte.

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

170. Indirect discourse is the indirect statement of the substance of the words, thoughts, suppositions, wishes, &c., of another, or is the speaker's report of the substance of his own words, thoughts, suppositions, wishes, &c. In German such indirect communications assume two general forms—the Indirect Form and the Independent Form.

INDIRECT FORM OF INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

171. I. Mood. In reporting the thought of another the speaker uses the indicative if he positively wishes to endorse the report, or represent it as evidently supported by facts; but if he desires to represent the report as doubtful, or wishes simply to submit to the judgment of the hearer the subjective views of himself or others, or to state his or their wishes, hopes, fears, intentions, &c., which are by their very nature not entirely certain of realization, he usually employs the subjunctive: *Der Arzt glaubt, daß ich krank bin* *The doctor believes me to be sick* (and I agree with him), but *Der Arzt glaubt, daß ich krank sei* *The doctor believes me to be sick* (but I don't agree with him). Er sagt, daß er schon zwei Kapitel gelesen hat *He says that he has already read two chapters* (and of course his word is good), but *Da sage einer, daß ich kein feiner Diplomat sei* *Now let some one say that I am not a shrewd diplomat!* (Who could now hold such a view, as I have already shown that I am one?). Ludwig Salomon meint, man dürfe Wilbrandt's „Maler“ neben Freytag's „Journalisten“ stellen *Louis Salomon believes that Wilbrandt's play 'Die Maler' compares favorably with Freytag's 'Die Journalisten' (the subjective view of Salomon).* Mein Vater glaubt, es sei (the subjunctive here contains nothing doubtful or disrespectful to the father, but simply indicates that the view expressed is his) besser, diesen Weg einzuschlagen *My father thinks it is better to pursue this course.* Er wünscht nicht, daß sie es höre *He does not want her to hear it.*

There is considerable fluctuation in the use of the subjunctive here according to the standpoint and feeling of the speaker or writer, but in general it is at present true that it is much more common after the second or third person than after the first, and more common after a past than a present tense, hence least frequent after the first person present: *Ich fürchte, daß es schon zu spät ist* *I fear it is already too late*, but *Er fürchtet, daß es schon zu spät sei.* *Ich zweifle, daß er lesen wird* (O. Weise) *I doubt whether he will read*, but *Ich zweifelte, daß er lesen werde* (id.). The subjunctive after a first person present, however, is common in case of verbs expressing *will, command*: *Ich will nicht, daß auch nur ein einziger schlaff werde* durch Weibertränen und Weibergeheul (Sudermann's *Teja*, 1, 5) *I do not desire that a single man should become enervated through the tears and cries of women.* The subjunctive is also more common with reference to the future than to the past: *Es war gewiß, daß er lag, gelogen hatte, lügen werde* (or *würde*).

As can be seen from the preceding sentences, the subjunctive employed in indirect discourse has not one distinct meaning, but is either optative or potential or both, as the statement may be represented as the will of some one, or as something that is possible, or it may be represented as both at the same time. That which marks this use of the subjunctive as a distinct one is the element of *indirectness* which lies in the statement. If the element of indirectness is present the subjunctive may now be used, although the optative and potential ideas may be entirely absent: *Ich wußte*

wohl, daß der Hund von edler Art sei (Riehl's *Der stumme Ratsherr*, III). See also 168. II. G. a. (2), 2nd par.; 169. 2. G. a. (2), 3rd par.

a. The indirect statement often depends upon a noun: Den Vorwurf, daß er dich habe täuschen wollen, hat er nicht verdient. Die Behauptung, daß die Erde sich drehe, setzte Galilei manigfachen Verfolgungen aus.

b. The report of the speaker in the subjunctive may be interrupted by explanatory remarks of his own in the indic., but all remarks, explanatory or otherwise, which are a part of the original direct statement are put in the subjunctive when transposed into the indirect: Karl erzählte, daß er das Haus, welches er von seinem Vater geerbt hat, verkaufen wolle. Seit Jahren (sagte sie) sei sie mit einem Standesgenossen verlobt gewesen, der gleich ihr arm gewesen sei.

c. Often a subordinate clause is in the subjunctive in indirect statement, although it has not the outward form of an indirect statement, which is easily explained by supplying some omission: Die Athener (Athenians) verurteilten Sokrates zum Tode, weil [sie sagten, daß] er die Jugend verderbe. Mendel (name) sollte dabei behülflich sein, wick aber aus. [Er sagte,] Er habe drei Wochen zu Bett gelegen, fühle sich noch sehr matt und sollte nach des Arztes Anweisung jede Aufregung vermeiden.

In long continued indirect discourse it is not necessary in German to be continually intercalating such clauses as 'she said,' 'he continued,' &c., for the subjunctive, as in the preceding examples, indicates clearly that the speech is indirectly reported.

d. The unreal optative and potential subjunctives of the direct change in the indirect their person but not their mood and tense: Er sagt (or sagte), er möchte Sie sprechen. Direct: Ich möchte ihn sprechen. Er sagt (or sagte), er würde gehen, wenn er Zeit hätte. Direct: Ich würde gehen, wenn ich Zeit hätte. Er sagt (or sagte), das könnten Sie am besten wissen. Direct: Das könnte er am besten wissen. Past time: Er sagt (or sagte), er hätte Sie sprechen mögen. Direct: Ich hätte ihn sprechen mögen.

e. In N.G. dialect and colloquial language the subjunctive of indirect discourse is very largely replaced by the indicative: So, also das sagst du und meinst, ich bin solch ein Mensch? (Halbe's *Jugend*, p. 87). For other examples see 2. B. f, below. The indicative is here used also in case of unreality: Die Krüppel glaubten, nu haben sie mich (E. von Keyserling's *Ein Frühlingsopfer*, p. 120). In South German the subjunctive is better preserved here: Und sie hat mir g'sagt, sie hätt' mich nie mög'n, 'zrungen wär' i' worden (Anzengruber's *Das vierte Gebot*, 2, 11). The indicative, however, is not infrequent in the South: Alle sagen, daß du mich verlassen **wirst**! Nicht wahr, du tust es nicht . . . (Schnitzler's *Liebelei*, p. 100). Mizi: Er spielt ja nicht Bassgeigen, Violin spielt er. Theodor: Ach so, ich hab' gemeint, er **spielt** Bassgeige (ib., p. 23). Hier ist ein Weib, das schreit. Ich kenn' sie kaum! Sie sagt, es **ist** um mich! Ihr Vater wollte sie dem reichen Mann verkuppeln, aber sie verdreht das Ganze und sagt, ihr Mann **wär'** auch ein solcher Kuppler und der ist nur ein Narr, soviel mich dünkt (Hugo von Hofmannsthal's *Die Hochzeit der Sobeide*, p. 107). In the South the idea of unreality, as in case of wär' in the last sentence, finds a more natural expression in the subjunctive, while in the North the indicative may also be used here.

2. *Tense.* The tense required in indirect discourse may as in English depend upon the tense of the principal verb. Thus a present, present perfect, or future follows a present, while a past, past perfect, or present conditional follows a past. Differing from English, the German may also, without regard to the tense of the verb in the principal proposition, use the same tense in the indirect as stood in the direct, so that the present, present perfect, and future usually stand in the subordinate clause, as explained in B, below. The former construction is the older, but the latter is steadily gaining upon it in the literary language. In the dialects, which often influence the literary language, the old historic usage has been entirely abandoned and new and different constructions have arisen. In the South-west the present, future, present perfect, and future perfect in the subordinate tense are the rule, whether they follow a present or a past, while to the East and North the past, present conditional, past perfect, and perfect conditional prevail under the same conditions. Thus it appears that the new literary sequence has developed under the influence of S.W. dialect, but it differs from it in one essential feature—it abandons the new sequence and retains the old historic construction, if in any case the subjunctive of the present, future, present perfect, and future perfect would not be clearly distinguished in form from the corresponding indicative tenses, as explained in B. *a*, below.

The following points may serve to illustrate the form and use of these constructions:

A. The old law of sequence:

a. A present, future, present perfect, or future perfect follows a present: Er sagt, er sei krank, er werde morgen kommen, er habe es schon getan, er werde es innerhalb einer Woche getan haben.

b. A past, present conditional, past perfect, or perfect conditional follows a past or past perfect: Er sagte, er wäre krank, er würde (would) morgen kommen, er hätte es schon getan, er würde es innerhalb einer Woche getan haben.

Note. Sometimes a past or past perfect subjunctive seemingly depends upon a principal tense. Such constructions are elliptical, some verb in a historical tense being understood: Und sag' Er (140. *a. Note*) ihr [, daß ich sagte], sie sollte sich in Acht nehmen, der Kaiser (name) — das wäre ein Erzbischof (Gutzkow's *Zopf und Schwert*, 1, 7). Bringe Wendelin meine Grüße und [sage ihm, ich sagte,] es wäre hübsch von ihm gewesen, daß er dir diese Reise gönnt (Fontane's *Poggenpuhl*, chap. viii). The historical tenses of the subjunctive are nowhere in indirect discourse so generally used as in these elliptical constructions. We often, however, find a historical tense after a real present tense, as the speaker or writer desires to give a dialectic coloring to the language: Sie dürfen nicht Theater spielen und keine Bälle abhalten; der Hofer (name) sagt, für so etwas wäre jetzt kein Wetter (Rosegger). This is especially common in naturalistic authors: Sie sagt, du wärst krank. Das hab' ich doch immer gesagt, Robert (G. Hirschfeld's *Mütter*, Act 4). Dein Onkel Gottfried sagt, das wären die Folgen der Kadettenhäuserziehung. Ob er recht hat, weiß ich nicht (Oempteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, LIX). For the dialect see 2, above.

c. The unreal optative and potential subjunctives of the direct discourse do not change their tenses when transposed into the indirect statement, present time being always expressed by the past tense, and past time by the past perfect tense, a preceding

present or past tense not influencing the construction. For examples see 1. *d*, above. Thus after a past tense the *unreal* optative and potential subjunctives cannot be distinguished by their form from the sanguine optative and the plausible potential which have been attracted into a historical tense under the influence of a preceding historical tense. For examples see 169. 1. C. *a* and 169. 2. A. (2), 3rd par. It will therefore be a real gain for the language if the old sequence be still further restricted in its use.

B. *The new law of sequence.* The same tense may stand in the indirect discourse as stood in the direct with the exception of the past and past perfect. The past and past perfect of the direct discourse are both rendered by the present perfect in the indirect, or the past perfect *may* be rendered by the special form described and illustrated in *e* below. The past and past perfect subjunctive are avoided in indirect discourse, as they can easily be misunderstood. The past subjunctive is used so much after a past tense to express present time that it is now no longer as in former periods felt as having a past force. The past perfect subjunctive might be mistaken for another form of the perfect conditional. The tenses of the subjunctive employed in indirect discourse according to the new law are therefore the present, future, present perfect, and future perfect, and the special forms described in *e*, below, a preceding present or past tense having no influence whatever upon the following tenses:

Direct.		Indirect.	
(1)	Ich bin krank	Er sagt or sagte, er sei krank	
(2)	Ich werde kommen	" " " er werde kommen	
(3)	<div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;"> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(a) Ich tat es</div> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(b) Ich habe es getan</div> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle;">(c) Ich hatte es getan</div> </div> <div style="display: inline-block; vertical-align: middle; font-size: 3em;">}</div> </div>	" " " er habe es getan	
(3)	(c) Nachdem ich gelesen hatte, schrieb ich einen Brief (an additional illustration of the preceding point)	" " " nachdem er gelesen [habe], habe er einen Brief geschrieben (another indirect form for (3) (c) is given in <i>e</i> below).	
(4)	Ich werde es innerhalb einer Woche getan haben	" " " er werde es innerhalb einer Woche getan haben.	

a. Modified new law. Although the new sequence may be followed as stated above, it is more common to employ it only where its subjunctive forms are clearly distinguished from the corresponding indicative forms, and elsewhere to use the old historic sequence. Thus after a past tense a past tense is used instead of a present, a past perfect instead of a present perfect, a present conditional instead of a future, wherever the last-mentioned tenses do not have a subjunctive form differing from that of the indicative: Socrates erklärte, alles, was er wisse, sei, daß er nichts wisse; viele wüßten (the present subjunctive would be like the indicative) aber auch dieses nicht. Sie sagten, sie hätten (instead of haben)

es nicht getan. Sie sagten, sie würden (instead of werden) morgen kommen. So strong is the feeling that a clear subjunctive form should be used that a past, past perfect, and present conditional are used instead of a present, present perfect, and future even after a present tense, if a clear subjunctive form is thus secured: Sie sagen, sie hätten es nicht gesehen, &c. Sagen Sie ihm, ich käme schon.

In case of unclear forms the historical tenses are preferred even though they themselves are not clear subjunctive forms: Die Bildhauerei, sagen sie, könne keine Stoffe nachmachen; dicke Falten machten eine üble Wirkung (Lessing).

Note. Opposed to this change from a principal to a historical tense is the trend toward uniformity, which prefers principal tenses throughout: Der äußerste [, sagte mir mein Führer,] . . . sei der Saturnus; der mit dem roten Schein . . . sei der Mars, und beide bringen wenig Glück den Menschen (Schiller's *Piccolomini*, 3, 4). „Als ich damals mit dem Messer nach Ihrer Ehre stach,“ sagte sie, „dachte ich nicht, daß ich einst so Ihnen gegenüber sitzen werde“ (for würde) (G. Keller). This tendency is especially strong in authors from the South-west, where in dialect the principal tenses are alone used in direct discourse. See 2, above. For a different trend in other authors see *b*, below.

b. Sometimes both constructions, the old and the new, alternate in the same sentence without any shade of difference or without any necessity at hand of resorting to the old rule as mentioned in *a*, above: Er sagte, Marie wäre wohl verschlossen, aber sie sei tief von Gemüt. This is quite natural. The old and the new construction are both felt and will continue to exist side by side until the new construction has gained a complete victory. In the East and North there is a natural tendency to use historical tenses more than is necessary, as these tenses are alone used in indirect discourse in the dialects of these sections. For examples of this usage see *A. b. Note*, above, towards end.

c. The existence of the principal and historical tenses of the subjunctive side by side in indirect discourse without a shade of meaning is contrary to the development of these groups elsewhere, where there is a marked tendency to use the principal tenses to express something as desired, probable, or as a subjective view, and to employ the historical tenses to express unreality or possibility. There are traces of the idea of unreality also in indirect discourse: Und wenn die alten Gelehrten da noch immer behaupten, Sie wären ungrisch, wir beide wissen es viel besser (Meinhardt's *Allerleirauh*, p. 177). Es ist das Testament, von dem wir glaubten, daß es vernichtet worden wäre. It is the will which we erroneously believed to be destroyed. For additional examples see 169. 2. G. *a.* (2), 2nd par. For the idea of possibility or cautious statement see *d*, below, and the reference there given. These ideas of unreality and cautious statement cannot develop strongly in the historical tenses in indirect discourse until the old sequence disappears, and even then will be limited by the cases where the new sequence cannot well be used, and where the old sequence will consequently remain.

d. For the use of the cautious or modest subjunctive in indirect discourse see 169. 2. G. *a.* (2). See also *c*, above.

e. The present perfect of the indirect discourse stands for the past, present perfect, and past perfect of the direct, and hence there is a lack of clearness sometimes in the indirect. There is a tendency to represent the past perfect of the direct in the indirect by a special form made by adding *gehabt* in case of transitives and *gewesen* in case of intransitives to the regular present perfect: *Er sagt (or sagte), er habe die Straße verlassen gehabt und sei schon in das Haus getreten gewesen, als der Schuß fiel* He says (or said) that he had left the street and had already entered the house when the shot was fired. This form is borrowed from dialect where it is the usual form for the past perfect; see 190. 1. B. a.

f. If the indicative is used in indirect discourse the same tense may be used as would stand in the direct statement: *Ich dachte, er arbeitet immer (Hirschfeld's Mütter, Act 4). Da tastete ich an den Riegeln und schlich hierher, denn ich wußte, du bist hier, Meister! (Sudermann's Johannes, 2, 8). Wußte ja nicht, ob ich erwünscht bin (Halbe's Die Heimatlosen, p. 77). Haben die Leut' nicht erzählt, der Deichhauptmann ist vorbei geritten auf'n Schimmel, Mama? (Halbe's Eisgang, p. 80). Ich hab' schon geruht, es wird dir recht sein (Halbe's Mutter Erde, p. 89). Sie wissen doch — er hatte mir doch geschrieben (Hirschfeld's Mütter, Act 4).*

After a historical tense the verb of the subordinate clause is often attracted into the form of a historical tense: *Und diese Furcht vor den Menschen erschien ihr so natürlich, so notwendig, so zugehörig zu ihrem Schicksal. Wie konnte er verlangen, daß sie frei davon war (H. Böhlau). Man hätte befürchten müssen, daß man sich Nase und Gesicht an den metallenen Zacken zerriß (Wildenbruch's Vice-Mama).*

A very common feature of indirect statement in the indicative mood is the use of the past tense instead of the present perfect, which would usually be employed. This shows that the speaker or writer is inclined to be influenced in his indirect statements by the form of lively narrative: *Sie telegraphierten über die neuesten Ereignisse, daß am 30. Oktober einige junge Armenier in das Regierungsgebäude drangen und dort auf den Kommandanten der Gendarmerie schossen (Kölnische Zeitung). Man sagt, er war früher katholischer Theolog (Wilbrandt). Ich erfuhr von dem Gastwirt, die Herrschaften kamen gerade aus hiesigem Ort (Hoffmann's Rittmeister, p. 97).* This usage is especially frequent in a clause subordinate to a subordinate clause: *Er erzählte, schon in der Jugend, da sie noch auf derselben Schulbank saßen, seien sie gute Kameraden gewesen.*

3. *Mood and Tense in Indirect Questions.* Indirect questions (see Note below), which are a form of indirect discourse, have the same rules for mood and tense as are described above with the limitation that the subjunctive in the subordinate clause is now less common after a present tense in the main proposition: *Erzähle mir, was geschehen ist. Kein Mensch vermag zu sagen, ob er nicht | des Helmes braucht (Schiller's Jungfrau, prologue, 3).* The subjunctive after a present tense *can* still be used if the attention is not called to a known fact or result so much as to the condition of doubt or anxiety in the mind of the person or persons in question as to the result or proper course to pursue: *Überlegen wir verständig und mit Bedacht, was*

zu tun sei (Raabe's *Horacker*, chap. iv). Im Vordergrunde steht die Frage nach der inneren Eignung, d. h., welche Sprache dem Zwecke der Mitteilung am besten und einfachsten diene, welche also zugleich für die Fremden am leichtesten zu erlernen sei (H. Schuchardt in *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, No. 230, 1901). Und wenn du die junge Dame kommen siehst, gehst du auf sie zu, nimmst deinen Deckel ab und fragst sie höflich, ob sie vielleicht zu Herrn Leutnant Rudorff wolle (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, 3, 1).

After a historical tense the subjunctive here is the rule: Ich wartete, ob er käme. Er erzählte mir, was er gesehen habe, wie es in der belagerten Stadt aussehe. Auch sah er sich nicht ein einzig Mal danach um, ob man ihm folge.

The subjunctive is quite commonly used even after a present, when it is desired to represent something as false or as a subjective view: Der Strobel-Hies hat seinem Weib im Jähzorn einmal einen Streich gegeben, seitdem hat er die Hölle auf Erden, und seine bessere Hälfte schreit's um, was er für ein Büffel wär' (Rosegger) The individual known as Strobel-Hies once gave his wife a blow in anger, since that time he has had in his home a hell on earth, and his better half is noising it about what kind of a rude fellow he is. For the use of the tense of the subjunctive in this sentence see 2. A. b. Note toward end above.

Note. An indirect question is one that forms a subordinate clause and thus differs from the direct question, which always forms a principal proposition: Wann kommst du? (direct). Sage mir, wann du kommst (indirect). Indirect questions are introduced by the conjunction *ob whether*, an interrogative pronoun, as *wer, was*, or by interrogative adverbs, simple or compound, as *wann when, wo where, wie how, womit with what, woher whence, wohin whither*, &c.

4. Imperative sentences when put into indirect discourse are governed by the same rules for mood and tense as declarative and interrogative sentences. The subjunctive of the simple forms of the verb is not usually employed here as elsewhere in indirect discourse. Instead of the subjunctive of the simple verb the following constructions occur:

a. The subjunctive of the auxiliaries *sollen* and *mögen*: Direct: Gehen Sie schnell! Indirect: Er sagte mir, ich solle schnell gehen. Indirect: Als er (i. e. der Diener) wieder eintrat, um Teebrett und Samowar fortzunehmen, beauftragte ich ihn, meinem Kutscher zu sagen, er möge sich um acht Uhr morgens zur Weiterfahrt bereit halten (A. E. Wiesner). After a verb denoting a strong expression of the will we sometimes have here a subjunctive of a simple form of the verb as elsewhere in indirect discourse: Sie verlangte, daß die Kerle schwiegen (T. Matthias), or also *schweigen sollten*.

b. In case of complex sentences the verb of the subordinate proposition may in the indirect discourse be put into the subjunctive, while the principal clause is abridged to the infinitive construction, provided its subject is identical with the subject or object of the governing verb: Anton befahl dem Führer, im Hause Wache zu halten (= daß er im Hause Wache halte), bis er zurückkehre.

c. The indicative of the simple verb or the auxiliary *sollen*, to express confidence that a command will be complied with: Ich

gebiete dir aber, daß du pünktlich zurück bist. Es ist verboten, daß dieser Weg von fremdem Fuhrwerk befahren wird. Sage ihm, er soll gleich kommen.

The indicative is, however, often used without especial emphasis instead of the subjunctive of the simple verb or auxiliary, in accordance with the general trend toward the declarative form of statement elsewhere noticeable in indirect discourse: Bitte, Kniehase, sagen Sie dem Rittmeister, daß er mich draußen auf der Chaussee erwartet (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, iv. 17). Sag' ihr, daß sie ihn verbrennt (id., *Effi*, chap. xxiv).

INDEPENDENT FORM OF INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

172. In a lively style the author or speaker often strips off all formal signs of subordination, and reproduces the thoughts, feelings, dreams, impressions, fears, &c., of another in grammatically independent form. This form is found in two quite distinct categories:

A. The author or speaker relates the thoughts, musings, reveries of another in independent form. The words are not represented as a free report of the author or speaker, but as a close though indirect reproduction of the thoughts, musings, reveries, &c., of another. The following two groups occur:

a. The tenses used are the same as employed according to the older law of sequence in the Indirect Form, as explained in 171. 2. A. The mood, however, is uniformly indicative with reference to present or past time of the direct discourse and present conditional with reference to the future. The use of the indic. shows the influence of lively narrative, as explained in 171. 2. B. f (3rd paragraph). The present conditional is uniformly used here with reference to the future, and cannot be replaced by the future subjunctive as elsewhere in indirect discourse. Thus the tenses will be the past indic. corresponding to the present of the direct discourse, the past perfect indic. corresponding to the present perfect and past of the direct, and the present conditional corresponding to the future of the direct discourse, but in English this manner of speaking is often considered direct discourse, and hence the verb and pronouns will be in the 1st person, and the tense will be present, pres. perf. or past, and future, and the words are inclosed in quotation marks: Sie hörte plötzlich auf (zu weinen), ließ die Hände in den Schoß sinken und starrte ins Leere. Ja, warum denn eigentlich? Es **war** doch nichts Unrechtes **geschehen**. Das **konnte** ihr Marianne und jedermann bezeugen. Und ganz gewiß, sie **hatte** nicht mit einer Miene, nicht mit einem Wort Herrn Bodmann Gründe **gegeben** sich in sie zu verlieben. **War** er denn überhaupt in sie verliebt? Nein, er **empfand** nur eine schöne, warme selbstlose Freundschaft für sie. Günther **würde** sich darüber **freuen**, daß ein so ausgezeichnete Mann sie einer edlen Freundschaft würdige. She suddenly ceased crying, allowed her hands to fall into her lap, and then stared blankly before her. 'Why, indeed,' she thought to herself, 'should I cry? Surely nothing wrong has happened. Marianna and everybody else can testify as to that. And surely, I have never by a glance or a word given Mr. Bodmann reason to fall in love with me. Is he

after all in love with me? No, he only has a beautiful, warm, unselfish friendship for me. Günther (her husband) will surely be glad that such an excellent man deems me worthy of a noble friendship.' The above passage taken from a novel is a good example of this now very common usage.

The potential subjunctive is not changed when transposed from the direct into this form of the indirect; see 171. 2. A. c.

b. Instead of the tenses employed in a we also find the same tenses as used in the direct discourse according to the new law of sequence in the Indirect Form, as explained in 171. 2. B. The mood is also the same as in the direct discourse: Und wie der Friedl nun so mit sich allein war, da versank er in ein Träumen, wie sonst noch nie.—Aus der Hosentasche zog er eine kleine goldene Uhr und schaute sie an und hob schon die Hand, um sie ins Gestein zu schleudern, tat's aber nicht.—Ob nicht die Rosel so was **möchte**? Ei natürlich, die **soll** sich's nur selber kaufen. Er **wird** überhaupt nicht mehr viel **reden** mit dem Geiß-Mädl, er **hat** ganz andere Ausflüchten, wenn er **will**. Manchmal einen Gefallen, wenn's drauf **ankommt**, **kann** man einer ja wohl erweisen. Aber ungut **wird** ihm schier, wenn er an diese — diese Stadtleute **denkt**. Es **ist** halt doch wahr, was man von ihnen **sagt**. So dachte er und schüttelte den Kopf (Rosegger's *Durch!* p. 67).

Just as in 171. 2. B. f (2nd par.), the tenses are often affected by the lively tone of narrative, so that the present indicative (used as a present or a future) and past subjunctive (used as a present conditional) of the direct discourse become past indicative and past perfect subjunctive: „Vielleicht kommt der Vater," sagte sie hinausgehend. Er schien es aber nicht zu sein, denn sie zog nachher die Stubentür zu und sprach geraume Weile draußen. Eine männliche Stimme war zu vernehmen. Fortunat spitzte die Ohren, während er zerstreut sein [von Leni gemachtes] Marterl betrachtete, den Jäger im Schnee, den winzigen Christus am Kreuz, kaum so groß wie ein Fingerglied, und das Stückchen Strauchwerk und Hecke, alles einfach mit kindlicher Phantasie und doch geschickt gemacht. Aus dieser Leni **hätte** etwas werden **können**! Wann **kam** sie nur wieder herein? (Berlepsch's *Fortunats Roman*, pp. 80-81).

B. Instead of representing the words as the musings, thoughts, &c., of some one else, the author or speaker often passes over into narrative, and relates from his own point of view the substance of the thought, &c., of another: Dieser Gedanke ging mit ihr zu Bett, und als sie schlief, hatte sie einen Traum sonderbarer Art:

Sie befand sich in einem rabenschwarzen, finsternen Gelaß, zu dem sie auf einer langen Treppe hinuntergestiegen war; plötzlich ging ein grelles Licht auf, nun blickte sie umher und sah, daß sie in einem Keller stand, und ringsherum lagen und standen Gegenstände, die sie nie gesehen hatte (Wildenbruch's *Schwester-Seele*, p. 304).

CONJUGATION.

173. The infinitive. The form of the verb usually given in the dictionary is the infinitive, which ends in *en* except after *=el* and *=er*, where the *e* of the *en* is dropped, as also in the two isolated verbs *tun* to do, *sein* to be: loben to praise, wandern to wander, wandeln to saunter.

174. The stem. By cutting off *en* from the infinitive, or *n* after *=el* and *=er*, the simple stem of the verb is found, out of which grow all the varied forms of conjugation.

175. Forms of conjugation. Like the English, the German verb has a *common* and an *interrogative* form, and has besides in the second person a form for familiar language and another for polite intercourse, but lacks the *emphatic* and *progressive* forms of the English, the common form serving usually for the English common, emphatic, and progressive. The German has an emphatic form that corresponds in part to the English; see 185. B. I. 2. e. (2). See *Note* below for the German methods of expressing the idea of progression. The *polite* form is the same as the third person pl., and is distinguished from it by writing its subject, the pronoun *sie*, with a capital: *sie loben* they praise, *Sie loben* you praise. This polite form is the same in the sing. and pl. The familiar form, which is also used in solemn style, has *du* for its subject in the sing. and *ihr* in the pl. The personal endings of the verb are added to the stem:

Present Tense Declarative.

Present Tense Interrogative.

Singular.

ich *lobe* I praise, am praising, *lobe* *ich*? do I praise?
do praise

(familiar form)		
<i>du lobst</i> you praise, are praising,	<i>lobst</i> <i>du</i> ?	} do you praise?
do praise		
(polite form)		
<i>Sie loben</i>	<i>loben</i> <i>Sie</i> ?	

er, sie, es lobt he, she, it praises, *lobt* *er, sie, es*? does he, she, it
is praising, does praise praise?

Plural.

<i>wir loben</i> we praise, &c.	<i>loben</i> <i>wir</i> ? do we praise?
(familiar form)	
<i>ihr lobt</i>	<i>lobt</i> <i>ihr</i> ?
(polite form)	
<i>Sie loben</i>	<i>loben</i> <i>Sie</i> ?
<i>sie loben</i> they praise, &c.	<i>loben</i> <i>sie</i> ? do they praise?

Hereafter the polite form will be omitted in the conjugation, as it is exactly the same as the third person pl., except that its subject *Sie* is written with a capital letter.

Note. To emphasize especially the idea of progression, the German employs a prep. phrase consisting usually of the prep. *in* or *an* and the infinitive-substantive of the verb to be conjugated: *Die Kurse sind im Steigen, im Fallen* The value of stocks is rising, falling. *Sie hatte es gerade mit einem Kinde zu tun, das am Kartoffelschälen war* She was just then occupied with a child who was peeling potatoes. It should be noticed that in this progressive form the object must form a compound with the infinitive-substantive as in the second example. The progressive idea is also expressed by means of the part. *begriffen* in connection with a prep. phrase: *Die Truppen sind im Anmarsch begriffen* The troops are advancing.

REGULAR CONJUGATION.

176. There are two regular conjugations, the weak and the strong.

1. The weak forms its past tense by adding *te* to the stem, and its perf. participle by prefixing *ge* and adding *t* to the stem: *loben* to praise, past *lobte* praised, perf. participle *gelobt* praised.

2. The strong forms its past tense by a change of vowel within the stem of the verb, and its perf. participle by prefixing *ge*, usually changing the vowel of the stem, and by adding *en* to the stem: *singen* to sing, past *sang* sang, perf. participle *gesungen* sung.

The Simple Forms of the Verb.

177. The simple forms of the verb are all active except the perf. part. and gerundive, which are passive. In the following paradigms all the simple forms of the verb are given, and besides a few common compound forms which supply the place of the wanting simple forms. The words inclosed in parentheses are under certain circumstances a regular part of the verbal form, while under other circumstances they are omitted. The accompanying reference will usually explain in full this point.

I. The simple forms of the weak verb :

Present.		Past.	Present.	
I praise, &c.		I praised, &c.		
Indic.	Subj.	Indic. & Subj.	Imperative.	
ich lobe	lobe	lobte	lobe ich	(familiar) (polite)
du lobst	lobest	lobtest	lobe,	loben Sie praise
er lobt	lobe	lobte	er lobe	let him praise, <i>or</i> er soll loben
wir loben	loben	lobten	loben wir	let us praise
ihr lobt	lobet	lobtet	(familiar) (polite)	
sie loben	loben	lobten	lob(e)t,	loben Sie praise
			sie sollen loben	let them praise
Infinitive.			Participle.	
Pres. (zu) loben to praise (185. A			Pres. lobend praising	
and B)			Perf. Passive gelobt praised	

Gerundive.

Predicate Form : zu loben (180. A).

Attributive Form : der (, die, das) zu lobende (180. B).

A. The *imperative* of both strong and weak verbs has forms only for the 2nd person sing. and pl. of the familiar form and the 1st person pl. The other simple forms are subjunctive forms used to replace the wanting imperative forms. The subjunctive imperative of the 1st pers. sing. is only rarely found: *Denn, geh' ich es nur, nicht ruft die nahe Gefahr mich | aus dem Hause des Vaters* (Goethe's *H. und D.*, iv. 137). *Geh' ich's Euch!* (Grillparzer's *Der treue Diener*, 3). *Allein zu Lieb' und Ehe braucht es zwei; | und sag' ich's nur,*

mein Vater, euer Fürst, | war mir des Mannes ein so würdig Bild, | daß ich vergebens seinesgleichen suche (id., *Libussa*, 2). Er (Schiller) lebe hoch, und — wünsche ich Ihnen (*let me wish you*) eine angenehme Nachtruhe und, morgen früh, ein recht fröhliches, frisches Erwachen zu den drängenderen Pflichten und Nöten des Tages! (Raabe's *Der Dräumling*, XXVI). For the 3rd pers. sing. the subjunctive imperative has either normal or question order: er lobe, or lobe er. In the 1st pers. pl. and in the polite form of the 2nd pers. sing. and pl. the question order is alone used: Doch, laß ruhen die Toten, sehen wir in die Zukunft (Bismarck to his betrothed, June 13, 1847). Loben Sie (polite form, sing. and pl.). The 3rd pers. sing. and pl. of the simple verb is usually replaced in colloquial speech by an auxiliary with a dependent infinitive; see B. a, below. It is, however, still quite common in commands which have the indefinite man, einer, keiner, niemand, or jeder, ein jeder for a subject: Man beachte Folgendes Let everybody note the following points. Geh' einer von euch! Glaube keiner, sein Nachbar sei glücklicher als er (Isolde Kurz's *Es und ich*). Niemand glaube, je die Eindrücke seiner Kindheit verwinden zu können — so oder ähnlich hat einmal der alte Brachtmensch von Weimar geschrieben (Franz's *Der Gott des alten Doktors*, p. 41). Deshalb sehe ein jeder nach seinen Außenständen, Verpflichtungen und dergleichen (Raabe's *Villa Schönow*, II). On the other hand, it is in general not infrequent in poetry and choice prose: Der späte Wanderer erquickte sich | an dem Gedanken, daß noch jemand wacht (Grillparzer's *Des Meeres und der Liebe Wellen*, 3). Dann zerbreche dies Britannien, wenn es zu ehrenhaftem Leben zu morsch ist (Lienhard's *König Arthur*, 1). Less common in the plural, as the form is the same as for the indic.: Geh'n einige und zünden Reisholz an (Schiller's *Tell*, 2, 2). More common in a few formal expressions in polite language: Erlauben mir die Herren, Sie mit einander bekannt zu machen: Herr von Leslie-Gordon, Herr Hofprediger Dr. Dörfel (Fontane's *Cécile*, chap. 18). Gestatten die Herren, daß ich Ihnen Herrn Lothar Brandt vorstelle (Sudermann's *Die Ehre*, 2, 6). Die Herrschaften verzeihen, aber, &c. (ib.).

a. The pronoun in the familiar form is only expressed for especial emphasis or contrast: Wartet ihr, indem wir voranlaufen. The pronoun may not only follow the verb as in the example just given, but it may also precede: Ihr da! seid aufmerksam! Du da! sei aufmerksam! Instead of a pronoun, a noun can of course be used: Karl, sei aufmerksam!

The Sie of the polite form is usually expressed in the literary language, but colloquially it is not infrequently omitted, especially if it has been once expressed: Na, das überlegen sich man (= nur)! (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, p. 152). Reiten Sie zur Fabrik und bringen mir — ich bitte flotte Gangart — Bericht (Liliencron's *Kriegsnovellen*).

b. For the pres. perfect imperative, see 190. I. A.

B. Substitutes for the imperative of strong and weak verbs are:

a. The modal auxiliaries, which in connection with the infinitive of the verb to be conjugated are much used to replace the simple imperative and the wanting forms of the imperative. First person plural: laß (sing. familiar form), laßt (pl. familiar form), lassen Sie (polite) uns leben, or wir wollen leben instead of leben wir. The question order is also used with wollen, although not so commonly as the normal order: Wollen wir das annehmen! (Storm's

Es waren zwei Königskinder, p. 2). Komm — woll'n wir sechten! (Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, 3). Second person: Sechs Tage sollst du arbeiten; am siebenten Tage sollst du feiern (revised edition, Ex. xxxiv. 21). The past subjunctive softens the force and imparts to the utterance the idea of advice offered modestly: Neulich fragte sie noch nach dir. Die solltest du wählen (Goethe's *H. und D.*, 2, 241). Traute, minnißliche Frau, wollest (subj.) nimmer fliehen (Höfely). Wolltet (imperative; addressed here to one person) das nicht von mir heißen (Storm's *Zur Chronik von Grieshuus*, p. 113). Wolltet mir, geliebte Brüder im Herrn, Aufmerksamkeit schenken, daß ich euch ein Gleichnis erzähle (Ertl's *Die Stadt der Heiligen*). Past subj. of mögen is very common in polite language: Möchten Sie die Güte haben, mir zu folgen? The auxiliary dürfen is much used here in prohibitions: Ihr dürft nicht laut schreien! Children, you must not scream out loud! Müssen is much used here in the positive form of statement, to express the idea of compulsion: „Geh!“ „Ich will nicht.“ „Du mußt gehen!“ Third person: Er soll (indic.) leben! Let him praise! (command), or er möge (or wolle; both subj.) leben, or möge (or wolle) er leben! May he praise! (wish). Plural: sie sollen leben, or mögen sie leben. Sometimes also the indic. of mögen is used: Nur habe ich eine kleine Bitte an ihn zu tun. Er mag so gut sein und es dem Herrn Prof. Gellert nicht zuschreiben (Lessing).

b. The 2nd person of the present indic. to express in a stern tone that the command must be obeyed: Kuhnert (trotzig): Ich laß mir nicht'n Mund verbieten! Die alte Kuhnert: Still bist! (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 66).

c. The 2nd person of the future indic. to express an admonition or give advice: Du wirst hier bleiben! You certainly will stay here. Often in a more positive tone: Du wirst den Apfel schießen von dem Kopf | des Knaben — ich begeh'r's und wiß's (Schiller's *Tell*, 3, 3). Three lines further on the pres. indic. is used in still more positive tone. Also wollen with dependent infinitive is used in admonitions; see 213. 6. f (last sentence).

d. The perfect participle in short, sharp commands or warnings: Aufgestanden! Stand up! Den Wagen angespannt! Schnell Hilfe geholt! Vorgehen! Look out! Nur nicht zu früh gefreut, Lenken! (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 48). Nicht geplaudert! No talking! Aber reinen Mund gehalten! But don't you tell a word of it. Keinen verschont! Spare nobody!

Note. The perfect participle here, as in 183. G, is used as a finite verb rather than as a participle with participial force. Notice (1) that the perfect participle of transitive verbs here does not have passive force as elsewhere, as this imperative form as all others takes a direct object. It is probably true, however, that these imperatives, although they are felt to-day as imperatives, were originally past participles used as predicate complement after the auxiliaries sein and werden, or in case of transitives as objective predicate after haben: [Sei] aufgestanden! [Habe] den Wagen angespannt! (2) In case of reflexive verbs, the reflexive pronoun drops out in this imperative form, as in the fourth and fifth examples above.

e. The present infinitive, to express a command or warning to children and informal commands in general, such as entreaties, directions, especially those directed to the public: Maul halten! Hold your tongue! Schweigen! Be still! Aber dich nie wieder so dicht am Wasser auf die Erde legen und einschlafen! Verstanden? (Wildenbruch) But don't ever lie down again so near the water and go to sleep! Do you understand? Ruhig, ruhig! Nur ja nicht ärgern (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, 1) (see (3) in *Note* below). Nein, nein, bitte, setzen! (Sudermann) No, no, please be seated. Bitte, mich auch fliegen lassen! Please throw me up into the air too! Ich bitte, bitte: essen! nur einen Bissen davon, aber essen! „Nur nicht aufregen,“ warnte der Arzt, „dämpfen! Berstreuung braucht er jetzt nicht, langweilen soll er sich“ (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Rittmeister Brand*, XVII). Dann rief ich dem Kurfscher zu: „umkehren.“ Briefe postlagernd Konstanz adressieren (in an advertisement) Address letters to Constance,

to be called for. Einsteigen! All aboard! (to passengers). Umsteigen nach Hannover! Change cars for Hanover! Often in telegrams: Vater schwer krank. Kommen. Gottfried (Ompfeda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, LXIII). The infinitive in all these cases probably depends upon some auxiliary understood: [Du sollst dein] Maul halten!

Note. Observe in the above examples (1) that in a negative command the negative must precede the infinitive, (2) that the separable prefix is not separated, (3) that reflexive verbs in this imperative form sometimes take the reflexive pronoun and sometimes are without it, especially so in certain set expressions, as in the fourth and fifth examples.

f. A substantive or adverb: Achtung! Attention! Vorwärts! Forward!

g. A subordinate clause: Daß du so fortfährst und deinen lieben Eltern viel Freude machst! Keep right on in this way, and thus bring your dear parents much joy! Eduard! daß die Briefe noch vor 8 auf der Post sind Edward! see to it that the letters are at the Post Office by eight. Such clauses depend upon some verb understood, such as ich sage dir, ich bitte dich, &c.

C. The personal endings of the plural pres. indic. vary in different dialects from the above models. There is in some dialects a tendency to use uniformly the same personal ending throughout the plural, one form levelling the others. This is also true of str. verbs, as they have exactly the same personal endings as the wk. Thus in most editions of Goethe's *Götz*, I, 1 (not, however, in the Weimar edition) we find in the dialectic language there employed *en*, the ending of the 1st and 3rd pers. pl., also in the 2nd pl.: Wollen ihr Ruß haben?

The old ending *ent* for the 3rd pers. pl. is preserved in Alemannic and has there spread to the other persons of the pl. This old ending is also preserved in the literary language in the one word *sind* (for irregular spelling see III, foot-note marked ¹), which form has also spread to the 1st pers. pl. In dialect the older correct 1st pers. pl. form *sein* often occurs and has spread to the 3rd pers.: wir sein, sie sein.

In the Swabian and some Swiss dialects the ending *et* is heard instead of *en* in the 3rd pers. pl., and has also spread to the 1st and 2nd pers. pl. The pl. ending here is also *e*.

In Bavarian and Austrian dialects this levelling does not take place in the pl. The ending for the 1st and 3rd pers. pl. is *e(n)* and for the 2nd pers. pl. *et* or *tā* (regular 2nd pers. pl. ending *t + ē*, the latter element of which is the contracted form of the old dual *ēs*; see 140. g).

II. The simple forms of the strong verb:

A. *singen* to sing.

B. *fallen* to fall.

C. *helfen* to help.

Present.

Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.
ich singe	singe	ich falle	falle	ich helfe	helfe
du singst	singest	du fällst	fallest	du hilfst	helfest
er singt	singe	er fällt	falle	er hilft	helfe
wir singen	singen	wir fallen	fallen	wir helfen	helfen
ihr singt	singet	ihr fallt	fallet	ihr helft	helfet
sie singen	singen	sie fallen	fallen	sie helfen	helfen

Past.

Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.
ich sang	fänge	fiel	fiere	half	hälfe
du sangst	fäng(e)st	fielst	fieldest	halfst	hälfe(st)
er sang	fänge	fiel	fiere	half	hälfe
wir sangen	fängen	fielen	fielen	halfen	helfen
ihr sangt	fäng(e)t	fielt	fieltet	halfst	hälfe(st)
sie sangen	fängen	fielen	fielen	halfen	helfen

Present Imperative.

Singular.

1st singe ich (familiar) (polite)	falle ich (familiar) (polite)	helfe ich (familiar) (polite)
2nd sing(e), singen Sie	fall(e), fallen Sie	hilf, helfen Sie
3rd er singe	er falle	er helfe

Plural.

singen wir	fallen wir	helfen wir
sing(e)t, singen Sie	fall(e)t, fallen Sie	helf(e)t, helfen Sie
sie sollen singen	sie sollen fallen	sie sollen helfen

Infinitive.

Participle.

Gerundive (180)

Pres. (zu) singen (185. A & B)	Pres. singend	zu singen (predicate form)
Pres. (zu) fallen	Perf. gesung'en	der (&c.) zu singende (180. B)
	Pres. fallend	lacking with intransitive verbs
	Perf. gefal'len	
Pres. (zu) helfen	Pres. helfend	zu helfen (the attributive form is lacking; see 180. B. a.)
	Perf. gehol'fen	

D. The three models given above represent the three different forms of inflection in the simple mood and tense forms of strong verbs, concerning which the following particulars are given:

a. Those that have an *a* in the stem modify as a rule that vowel in 2nd and 3rd person sing. of the present indic., as in B above. *Laufen* and *saufen* are the only verbs in *au* that mutate here. *Kommen* to *come* sometimes mutates. For cause of mutation see 197. C. a.

Note. In S.G. mutation is often suppressed here: *du schlast*, *er schlast* for *du schläfst*, *er schläft*.

b. Those that have an *e* in the stem change it in the 2nd and 3rd person sing. of the present indic. to *i*, if it stands before two or more consonants, and to *ie*, if it stands before one consonant or silent *h*: *ich treffe I hit*, *du triffst*, *er trifft*, but *ich lese I read*, *du liest*, *er liest*, and *ich befehle I command*, *du befehlst*, *er befiehlt*.

Erlöschen to *become extinguished*, *go out* changes *ö* to *i*: *du erlischest*, *er erlischt*. *Gebären* to *give birth to* changes *ä* to *ie*: *du gebierst*, *sie gebiert*.

Note. In earlier periods *i* was also found in the first person sing., and this old form survives in S.G. dialect: *Ich vergiß' ihr alles* — *sie vergißt mir* (*Ebner-Eschenbach's Glaubenslos*, chap. i). For cause of change of vowel, see 26. C. and 197. C. b.

c. The imperative of the class that changes *e* to *i* or *ie* in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. of the present indic. also has in the 2nd

pers. (never in the 3rd pers., as it is in fact a subjunctive form) sing., except in case of *werden to become*, the same change of vowel, but does not have a personal ending: *triff, gib, befehl*, but *werde*. The exclamatory imperative *siehe!* behold! look! (from *sehen*) deviates often from the rule, in that it not only has change of vowel but also after the analogy of the wk. imperative may take the personal ending *e*.

The imperative of all strong verbs not having an interchange of *e* to *i* or *ie* in the 2nd person either remains without an ending in the 2nd sing. according to long established usage, or takes an *e* after the analogy of wk. verbs: *fahr* or *fahre* drive, *sing* or *singe*.

The imperative is often replaced by other forms just as in the wk. verb; see I. B, above.

d. The following exceptions occur to the rules given in *b* and *c* above: (1) *Geben to give, nehmen to take, and treten to step* change long *e* to short *i* and *nehmen* and *treten* also double the consonant in the 2nd and 3rd sing. pres. indic. and the sing. imper.: *ich gebe, du gibst, er gibt, gib*; *ich nehme, du nimmst, er nimmt, nimm*; *ich trete, du trittst, er tritt, tritt*. (2) *Bewegen, gehen, genesen, heben, pflegen, stecken, stehen, weben*, and often *scheren*, do not suffer an interchange of vowel at all in the present tense of either the indic. or imper. Now and then other verbs show no interchange in the present, especially in familiar conversation: *ich schelte, du schiltst* or *scheltest*, imper. *schilt* or *schelt(e)*. "*Jetzt komm,*" *lächelte sie, schon wieder zuversichtlich ihn an der Hand fortziehend,* — "*und schelt halt noch einmal, wenn ich es nicht recht gemacht hab'*" (Berlepsch's *Fortunals Roman*, p. 18). *Helf den Herrschaften die Sachen abnehmen* (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, i. p. 18). In the language of the common people this tendency to level out the irregularities of form and become regular is much stronger than in the literary language.

e. The subjunctive never shows interchange of vowel.

f. All strong verbs not described in *a* and *b* follow the inflection of *singen* in pres. tense indic.

g. In early N.H.G. the past tense indic. often added an *e* in the 1st and 3rd person sing., after the analogy of weak verbs: Dct. *Faustus* name (for *nahm*) *im* (for *ihm* = *sich*) *wiederumb ein Gespräch für* (for *vor*) *mit seinem Geist zu halten* (*Historia von D. Johann Fausten*, 1587). We find these forms only rarely in the classical period: *ich litte* (Lessing's *Nathan*, 3, 8, 14th line). *Es flohe Freund und Feind* (Goethe's *Götz*, 3, 13).

III. The simple forms of the irregular verbs *haben, sein, werden*:

a. haben to have.

b. sein to be.

Present.		Past.		Present.		Past.	
Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.
<i>ich habe</i>	<i>habe</i>	<i>hätte</i>	<i>hätte</i>	<i>bin</i>	<i>sei</i>	<i>war</i>	<i>wäre</i>
<i>du hast</i>	<i>habeſt</i>	<i>hättest</i>	<i>hätt(e)ſt</i>	<i>biſt</i>	<i>sei(e)ſt</i>	<i>warſt</i>	<i>wär(e)ſt</i>
<i>er hat</i>	<i>habe</i>	<i>hätte</i>	<i>hätte</i>	<i>iſt</i>	<i>sei</i>	<i>war</i>	<i>wäre</i>
<i>wir haben</i>	<i>haben</i>	<i>hätten</i>	<i>hätten</i>	<i>sind</i>	<i>seien</i>	<i>waren</i>	<i>wären</i>
<i>ihr habt</i>	<i>habet</i>	<i>hättet</i>	<i>hättet</i>	<i>seid</i> ¹	<i>seiet</i>	<i>wart</i>	<i>wär(e)t</i>
<i>sie haben</i>	<i>haben</i>	<i>hätten</i>	<i>hätten</i>	<i>sind</i> ¹	<i>seien</i>	<i>waren</i>	<i>wären</i>

¹ The official spelling here needlessly obscures the etymological relations of the

Imperative.		Infinitive.	Imperative.		Infinitive.
Sing.			Sing.		
1st	<i>hābe</i> ich	Pres. (zu) <i>hāben</i>	1st	<i>sei</i> ich	Pres. (zu) <i>sein</i>
2nd	<i>hābe</i> , <i>hāben</i> Sie	(185. A & B)	2nd	<i>sei</i> , <i>seien</i> Sie	(185. A & B)
3rd	er <i>hābe</i>		3rd	er <i>sei</i>	
Plur.			Plur.		
1st	<i>hāben</i> wir	Participles.	1st	<i>seien</i> wir	Participles.
2nd	<i>hābt</i> , <i>hāben</i> Sie	Pres. <i>hābend</i>	2nd	<i>seid</i> , <i>seien</i> Sie	Pres. <i>seiend</i>
3rd	sie <i>sollen</i> <i>hāben</i>	Perf. <i>gehābt'</i>	3rd	sie <i>sollen</i> <i>sein</i>	Perf. <i>gewe'sen</i>

Gerundive.

zu *haben* (predicate form) *der* (, *die*, *daß*) zu *habende* (attributive)

Note. Instead of the usual subjunctive present singular of *sein*, we occasionally find the forms *ich sei*, *du seiest*, *er sei*: *Da meint er, es sei die Burg schon genommen* (Uhland's *Graf Eberstein*).

c. *wērden* to become.

Present.		Past.	
Indic.	Subj.	Indic.	Subj.
ich <i>wērde</i>	<i>wērde</i>	<i>wārd</i> or <i>wurde</i> ¹	<i>würde</i>
du <i>wirst</i>	<i>wērdest</i>	<i>wārdst</i> or <i>wurdest</i>	<i>würdest</i>
er <i>wird</i>	<i>wērde</i>	<i>wārd</i> or <i>wurde</i>	<i>würde</i>
wir <i>werden</i>	<i>wērden</i>	<i>wurden</i>	<i>würden</i>
ihr <i>wärdet</i>	<i>wärdet</i>	<i>wurdet</i>	<i>würdet</i>
sie <i>werden</i>	<i>wērden</i>	<i>wurden</i>	<i>würden</i>

Imperative

wērde ich
wērde
er *wērde*
wir *werden*
ihr *wärdet*, *werden* Sie
sie *sollen* *werden*

Infinitive.

Pres. (zu) *werden* (185. A and B)

Participles.

Pres. *wärend*
Perf. (ge)wōrden (178. 2. C.)

178. General Remarks respecting the Simple Forms of the Verb.

1. Sometimes in adding the various endings to the stem, sounds are brought together that are difficult to pronounce, in which case an *e* is placed between stem and ending to facilitate the pronunciation: *zeichnen* to sketch, draw, *du zeichnest* not *zeichnst*; *es regnet* (not *regnt*) it is raining, &c. This *e*, once a vital part of the word, has so lost its original force that it can thus be used to facilitate the pronunciation and dropped when it is not needed. It is also

words. *Seid* and *sind* should both be written with a *t* instead of *d*: *seit* and *sint*. In all other verbs, as for example in *ihr geht*, the 2nd person pl. ends in *t* and should also do so here. In earlier periods of the language the 3rd pers. pl. indic. of all verbs ended in *nt* as also in Latin: O.H.G. *farent* = N.H.G. *sie fahren*. The 3rd pers. pl. indic. form *sind* is the only remaining verb that still has this ending, which is, however, falsely spelled *nd* instead of *nt*. Indo-European *nt* (as in Latin *amanant*) became in prehistoric Germanic *nth*, which according to Verner's Law (see 40. 2. a) became Gothic *nd* as it followed an unaccented vowel, or as in case of *sind* was used enclitically. This *nd* became in the last shifting of the consonants O.H.G. *nt*. It is said that the intention of the spelling *seid* is to distinguish it from the prep. *seit*, which, however, seems a weak justification. For the explanation of 1st pers. pl. form *sind* and its dialectic form see I. C. above.

¹ *Wurde* is the more common form in ordinary prose, *ward* is a favorite in poetry and choice prose. The plural forms *wurden* and *warden* occur earlier in the period: *sie werden* (Luther). *Die Länder . . . wurden* *Euch durch* *Margareten's Hand* (Grillparzer's *König Ottokar*, 1).

sometimes retained to distinguish the different inflectional forms more clearly from each other, as for instance the subjunctive from the indic. It is thus to-day sometimes a mere *connecting*, sometimes an *inflectional* vowel, and hence is used or dropped according to the requirements of euphony or grammatical clearness. A brief outline of its present use is as follows:

A. The connecting vowel is usually retained in the following cases:

a. If the stem ends in single *m* or *n* preceded by another consonant, the connecting vowel *e* always stands between stem and ending: *atmen* to breathe, *du atmest*; *begegnen* to meet, *du begegnest*, *er begegnete*, &c., but *hemmen* to retain, check, *du hemmst*, &c.

Note. These stems ending in single *m* or *n* preceded by another consonant are derived from nouns or other parts of speech in *-em* or *-en*. In the conjugation of the verb the *e* of the suffixes *-em* and *-en* is suppressed in harmony with the contraction of adjectives ending in *-en* (see 110): *der Atem*, *des Atems*, but *atmen*; *der Regen*, *des Regens*, but *regnen*. In colloquial speech, however, the connecting vowel *e* is often suppressed in the verbal forms: *segent* or *seggt*, *ebent* or *ebyt*. Traces of this usage occur in the written language: *Meine Liebe tat zu viel für dich*; *rechen's ihr nicht zum Fehler an* (Goethe's *Götz*, 1771, *Adelheids Vorzimmer*). *Nun kommt das Schlimmste noch*; *es regent* (Heine). In early N.H.G. this usage is quite common: *Das es regent auff's Land* (Job xxxviii. 26). In careless pronunciation the *n* is also often assimilated to the preceding consonant: *ebyt* instead of *ebyt*. See 41. 4.

b. When stems ending in *d* or *t* would stand before the ending *t* (and often before *st*), the connecting vowel is usually placed between stem and ending, except in the 2nd and 3rd person sing. present tense of those verbs having a modification of vowel or interchange from *e* to *i* or *ie*, which latter classes never take the connecting vowel but the regular endings *st*, *t*, or in case of combinations difficult to pronounce suffer contraction: *beten* to pray, *er betet*, *du bet(e)st*, *du betetest*, *gebetet*, &c.; but *laden* to load, *du läbst*, *er lädt* (*le:t*); *halten* to hold, *du hältst*, *er hält*; *treten* to step, *du trittst*, *er tritt*; *sechten* to fence, *du sichtsst*, *er sichts*, but in the pl. according to rule: *ihr ladet*, *haltet*, *tretet*, *sechtet*.

Note. In early N.H.G., and still in the language of the youthful Goethe, contraction was here common, not only in the 2nd and 3rd person sing. of the strong verbs above mentioned, but in all verbs in any place where a *d* or *t* would be followed by a *t* in the inflectional ending: (Goethe's *Urfaust*) *angemäst* for *angemästet*, *gefnät* for *gefnetet*, *zugericht* for *zugerichtet*. A few adjective participles still remain as survivals of this former usage: (der) *Beamte* (for *Beamtete*), *beredt*, *durchlaucht*, *erlaucht*, *getroßt* (for *getroßtet*; see 208. 1. a). In early N.H.G., however, verbs which have a modification of vowel or interchange in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. present tense indicative may sometimes have there either an uncontracted or a contracted form, as *hältet* (written in early N.H.G. *heltet*) and *hält*, *flüchtet* and *flücht*, while to-day only the contracted form is here used in prose, the older usage continuing only in poetry.

c. When stems ending in a sibilant, as *f*, *sp*, *ff*, *ß*, *sch*, *ß*, *x*, would stand before *st* the connecting vowel is inserted between stem and ending except in the 2nd pers. sing. present tense of verbs having a modification of vowel or interchange from *e* to *i* or *ie*, which latter classes may take the connecting vowel in choice language, but in ordinary conversation add only the regular ending *st*, or in case of combinations difficult to pronounce suffer contraction: *fischen* to fish, *du fischest*; but *waschen* to wash, *du wäschest* or *wäschst*; *wachsen* to grow, *du wächsest* or *wächst*; *essen* to eat, *du issest* or *ißt*; *lesen* to read, *du liesest* or *liest*. In familiar conversation contraction is also quite common here

even when there is no interchange of vowel: du *paßt*, *ließt* instead of *passëst*, *ließëst*. The choice language of our time is becoming ever more unfavorable to contracted forms.

d. The connecting vowel *e* besides serving to facilitate pronunciation distinguishes the subjunctive from the indicative in the present and also in the past of the strong conjugation, but the indicative and subjunctive weak are identical in form in the past tense, and in the strong conjugation the *e* may drop out of the past subjunctive where the modification of the vowel already distinguishes the subjunctive: du *tußt* (indic.), but du *tueßt* (subj.); du *gingst* (past indic. of *gehen* to go), but du *gingëst* (subj.); du *gabst* (past indic. of *geben* to give), but du *gäb(e)st* (subj.). Verbs in *=eln* and *=ern* may in the present tense not only distinguish the subjunctive from the indicative by retaining the connecting and inflectional vowel *e* but also by dropping (not always, however, as it may be retained) the *e* of the verbal suffix: (indic.) *ich heuch(e)le*, du *heuchelst*, er *heuchelt*, wir *heucheln*, ihr *heuchelt*, sie *heucheln*; (subj.) *ich heuch(e)le*, du *heuch(e)lest*, er *heuch(e)let*, wir *heuch(e)len*, ihr *heuch(e)let*, sie *heuch(e)len*.

Verbs the stems of which end in single *m* or *n* preceded by another consonant cannot distinguish between indicative and subjunctive except in the 3rd pers. sing.: *ich atme* (indic.), *ich atme* (subj.); du *atmëst* (indic.), du *atmëst* (subj.); er *atmet* (indic.), er *atme* (subj.).

Note. Earlier in the period the inflectional ending *se* was uniformly retained in verbs in *=el* and *=er* throughout, while the *e* of the suffix was dropped, and this usage is still found in some N.G. dialects, as in Hanover: *ich heuchle* (indic. and subj.), *sie heuchlen* (indic. and subj.). Also the very opposite usage is found in some N.G. dialects—the uniform retention of the *e* in the suffix: *Ich bibber ja nicht, Herr Major* (Wilhelm in Sudermann's *Fritzchen*, scene 3). *Aber so was schüttel' ich leicht von mir ab* (M. Dreyer's *Winterschlaf*, 2).

e. In early N.H.G. the connecting vowel was much more used than at present, being found in many cases where it is not found at all to-day: *Der Weisen zunge machet die Eere lieblich | Der Narren mund speiet eitel narnheit* (Prov. xv. 2). The poet still often uses these old forms, either because old forms are in general well suited to a poetic style, or because they here and there suit his measure: *Ich bin der dunkle Edelstein, | aus tiefem Schacht gewühlet: | du aber bist der Sonnenstein, | darin er Farben speiet* (Geibel).

f. In the Bavarian dialects (including those in Austria) the past subjunctive usually retains the connecting vowel *e* and suppresses the personal ending, thus terminating in *et* (representing O.H.G. *ōti*, *ēti*) in weak and often in strong verbs, as the latter have come under the influence of the former: *Ich mag ihn ja nicht, wenn er mir gefallet* (= *gefiele*), so *saget* (= *sagte*) *ich nichts* (Raimund's *Der Verschwender*, 2, 1). Also with vowel-gradation: *Wo nahmet denn unser Herrgott d'Finger her, wann er auf jeden einschichtigen Bauern deuten wollt* (Anzengruber's *Die Kreuzelschreiber*, 2, 3). *Aber blind müßt' mer sein, wann man nit fährt, weher eng auf einmal d'groß' Buschastigkeit eingeschossen is!* (ib. 3, 4). These dialects have no past indic.; see 165. 2. b.

B. On the other hand, instead of inserting an *e* between stem and inflectional ending verbs often drop an *e* of the latter: *ich seß* for *ich seße*; *dreh* (imper. 2nd pers. sing.) for *dreße*, &c.

a. Verbs the stem of which ends in *=el* and *=er* always drop the *e* of the inflectional ending before *n* in the indicative and infinitive: wir *wandeln*, &c. For exceptions see A. d. *Note*, above. When *e*

constitutes of itself the inflectional ending, it can never be dropped, but the *e* of the suffix may then be suppressed in its stead, more commonly so in the indic. and imper., not always however, and often in the subj. : (indic.) *ich hand(e)le*; (imper.) *hand(e)le (du)*; (subj.) *ich hand(e)le*. See A. d. above.

b. The infinitives *tun* and *sein* are regularly without *e*, and *tun* also in the plural of the pres. indic., and *sein* in the 1st and 3rd pers. pres. subj. : *wir tun*, &c. ; *ich sei*, *du sei(e)st*, *er sei*. All verbs, both str. and wk., may drop the *e* of the inflectional ending *en*, when the stem ends in a vowel or a vowel followed by *h* : *schreien* or *schrein*; *gesehen* or *gesehn*. This dropping of *e* is very common in ordinary conversation, but is not usually indicated in the written language, the full ending *en* being there preferred. The poet marks clearly the full or contracted form in the orthography, so as to make plain the metrical scheme. Even though the *e* drops out, the number of syllables in the word is not in natural prose diminished, as the *n* assumes full syllabic function : *blühen* = *bly:n*.

c. The imperative of the 2nd pers. sing. of the weak conjugation has regularly an *e*, and the strong in imitation of the weak often takes an *e*, except those that have a change of vowel from *e* to *i* or *ie* in the 2nd and 3rd sing., which never take it with the one exception *siehe* : *heisse bite* for *beiß*; *wasche wash* for *wasch*; *komme come* for *komm*; but always, *nimm take*, *hilf help*, *gib give*, &c. On the other hand, the wk. imperative often drops its *e* in the 2nd sing., but those in *=el*, *=en*, and *er*, usually retain it : *reich reach* for *reiche*, but usually *läch(e)le*, *öffne*, *stolp(e)re*. Those in *=el* and *=er* drop sometimes in colloquial language the *e* of the ending and retain the *e* of the suffix : *lächel*, *stolper*. Those in *=en* always suppress the *e* of the suffix and retain the *e* of the ending : *öffne*.

2. *Ge-* does not stand in the perf. participle of:—

A. Those verbs that have no accent upon the first syllable. For the reason of the absence of *ge-* here see 246. II. 4. a. Such verbs are:

a. Those that have the following prefixes : *be*, *ent* (emp before *f* : *empfehlen*), *er*, *ge*, *miß* (usually; see 246. II. 8. B), *ver*, *wider*, *zer*; and the following when unaccented : *durch*, *hinter*, *über*, *um*, *unter*, *voll*, *wieder* : *verleßt* injured, *beschädigt* damaged, *übersetzt* translated, but *übergesetzt* transported across, &c.

Note. Exceptions occur in words where the prefix has been contracted and blended with the verb so that its force as a prefix is not felt : *gefressen* part. of *fressen* to eat (of animals), from *v(e)ressen*, &c.

b. Many foreign verbs and a few German ones :

(1) Those ending in *ie'ren* : *studiert* studied, *buchstabiert* spelled, &c. Children and uneducated people, earlier in the period also good authors, often prefix *ge* here : *gestudiert*.

(2) Those in *ie'n* : *prophezeit* prophesied, *kaiteit* chastised, mortified, &c. Earlier in the period *ge* is often prefixed here, and sometimes still in case of *benedei'en* to bless : *Sie gebenedeite unter den Frauen* (Spielhagen's *Faustulus*, p. 19).

(3) A few other verbs which cannot be designated by an outward sign : *alau'nen* to alum, *champagn'ern* to drink champagne, *kapau'nen* to

capon, falsä'tern to calk, farsbatſch'en to scourge, lash, farsbä'tſchen to curry (a horse), card (wool), farris'len to drive rapidly, farsbä'tſchen to shoot with grape-shot, farsfee'len to kick up a row, to be noisy, farsden'zen to hand (a cup of wine to some one to drink), furan'zen to drub, posau'nen to trumpet, sound forth, rigo'len (also rijo'len, rajo'len) to plow deep, to make a trench, rumo'ren to make a noise, rumble, falsbä'dern (part. sometimes gefalsbä'dert) to twaddle, ſcharmüg'eln to skirmish, ſcharwen'zeln or ſcherwen'zeln to bow and scrape, be officious, ſchlam-pam'pen to feast, live high, ſchmaroß'en to sponge on others, ſpekta'feln to make an uproar, ſtibig'en to pilfer, trompe'ten to trumpet, zigen'nern to rove about like gypsies, and usually offenbä'ren to manifest, reveal, but it is also accented on the first syllable and hence takes *ge* in the participle and usually so in its special sense of *divine revelation*: ein offenbartes Geheimnis, but Wer an keinen persönlichen Gott glaubt, kann sich zu keiner geoffenbarten Religion bekennen (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 142). Earlier in the period usage fluctuated, so that offenbä'ren could also be used in the sense of *divine revelation*: Da ward Daniel solch verborgen Ding durch ein Gesicht des nachts offenbart (Dan. ii. 19). Usage is even to-day not entirely fixed.

In the case of the following compounds frohlocken to rejoice, lieblosen to caress, willfahren to humor a person, usage fluctuates (with preference perhaps for first mentioned form) between gefroh'lockt and frohlockt', gelieb'foßt and lieb'gefoßt, and sometimes liebfoßt', gewill'fährt and willfährt'. Thus the compound may be treated as a simple verb taking accent on the first syllable and prefixing *ge* in the participle, or the first component element of the compound may be treated as an inseparable prefix taking no accent and hence no *ge* in the participle; see also 217. b.

In spite of its accent the adj. participle genaturt' (earlier in the period common, now little used except in popular language) -natured prefixes *ge*, after the analogy of geartet: seiner genaturt als die aus settem Von geformte Menschheit (Musäus).

B. Certain auxiliaries or auxiliary-like verbs, when in a compound tense they have an infinitive depending upon them.

a. The participle has no *ge* and has seemingly no other sign of the perf. part., but has to all appearances the form of the infinitive (for historical explanation see Note 1): Er hat es gemußt *He has been compelled to*, but Er hat es tun müssen *He has been compelled to do it*. These auxiliaries comprise the following, only, however, when simple verbs, never when compound: dürfen, können, mögen, müssen, sollen, and wollen; and the auxiliary-like verbs heißen to bid, helfen to help, hören to hear, lassen to let or cause, machen to make, sehen to see, usually brauchen to need (to do something), sometimes fühlen to feel, lernen to learn, and rarely lehren to teach and wissen to know, all seventeen of which except brauchen (185. B. I. 2. a) and wissen (212. 2. c) take an infinitive depending upon them without *zu*: Ich habe es gekonnt *I have been able*, but Ich habe es tun können *I have been able to do it*. Wie viel traute Stunden hatte mir der alte Bursche bereiten helfen! (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, xxi). Man fühlte aus den Redewendungen heraus, daß die Zeit doch ihr Werk getan, daß neue Eindrücke die alten verwiſcht, neue

Gesichter die Erinnerung an die alten hatten verblassen machen (G. Ompteda's *Eysen*, chap. ii). Und wozu habt ihr es uns denn glauben machen, ihr falschen Leut'? (Rosegger's *Frühling*). Ich hätte mich bloß nicht einzumischen brauchen (or perhaps less commonly, but more correctly einmischen brauchen, or einzumischen gebraucht) *I simply had no need of mixing myself up in the matter*. Wir hätten diese Schuld auch dann noch auf uns lasten fühlen (Wustmann's *Sprachdummheiten*, p. 60, 3rd ed.) — now more commonly lasten gefühlt. Hier tritt die Judith wieder ein, . . . die den Teufel hat zähmen lernen (G. Keller an T. Storm, 25. Juni 1878) — now more commonly zähmen gelernt [hat].

Note 1. These peculiar forms, which are outwardly infinitives but in function participles, are in fact for the most part old strong perfect participles without *ge*. They must have originally been felt as participles, as we also find forms with *ge*: So han wir diesen Brieff geheßen schreiben (Lehmann). Niemand hat es gedorffen sagen (Hutten). The *ge* became fixed with these words when they were used with the full force of independent verbs, but was discarded when they were used as auxiliaries, just as in the case of *werden* as an auxiliary in the passive voice. Notice that in case of *heissen*, *lassen*, *sehen*, the participle without *ge* is identical in form with the infinitive. Double forms of the participle arose in case of the modal auxiliaries—a weak and a strong form. Originally they had no perf. participle at all. At the beginning of the present period, when the participles were coined, both the strong and the weak formations presented themselves. Luther still used them without differentiation: Aber ich hab nit wollen. Hett ich doch selb nit mocht so wol dir antworten als disse reymen. Non-differentiation still occurs, especially in dialect, but in general they are so differentiated that the weak participle with *ge* is employed when these words are used as independent verbs, but the strong participle without *ge* when they are used as auxiliaries.

The above explains the participial forms of the modal auxiliaries, and *heissen*, *lassen*, *sehen*, and also *pfelegen* (formerly in Class V), which earlier in the period had the same construction. These peculiar participial forms were not clearly understood and were naturally construed as infinitives. Hence other verbs were attracted into the same construction. Hören naturally followed the example of *sehen*, and later *ansingen*, *brauchen*, *fühlen*, *machen*, *lehren*, *lernen*, *vermögen*, and *wissen*, joined more or less frequently the group. Of these *ansingen*, *pfelegen*, and *vermögen*, have abandoned the construction entirely. There is at present a growing tendency for other of these verbs to discard this peculiar participle and use the form they have as independent verbs, regularly so in case of *fühlen*, *lehren*, *lernen*, and *wissen*, quite often in case of *brauchen*, *hören*, *machen*, *sehen*, *lassen*, and occasionally so in case of others: Ich habe ihn mehrfach reden gehört (Sudermann). Der König von Frankreich hat den Papst glauben gemacht (Ranke). Die Seligkeit der Freude hätte seine verfliegende Lebenskraft nen rinnen gemacht (Janitschek's *Liebeswunder*, VIII). Ich habe ihn noch nie schlafen gesehen (Auerbach). Du hättest gewiß die Perser schlagen geholfen (Hamerling). The modal auxiliaries hold most tenaciously to the old construction, but the weak participial form with *ge* seems also here to be gaining ground, especially in subordinate clauses with suppressed tense auxiliary and also in principal clauses where the dependent infinitive has been placed at the beginning of the sentence for emphasis: Wir hatten es ja nicht besser haben gewollt (Raabe). Als ein strenger Richter hätte er vor ihr stehen gewollt (Ebner-Eschenbach). Wenn er ihr davon sprechen gewollt hätte, würde sie, &c. (Jensen). Wenn er doch sterben gedurft! (G. Ompteda). Gewiß denken sie wie ich, ihr Kind wird einmal Großes leisten, etwas wie's noch gar kein Mensch früher erreichen gesonnt (Adalbert Meinhardt). Essen hab' ich nicht viel gemocht (Schulze-Smidt).

Note 2. Lehren, lernen, helfen, and *heissen* may also require a *zu* before the dependent infinitive, as described in 185. B. I. 2. c, *Note*. In this case their participles usually take the regular participial form with *ge* instead of that of the infinitive: Fröh schon hatten sie sich kennen lernen (or more commonly gelernt), but Er hat sich zu beherrschen gelernt and Du hast gelernt, den Mund verschlossen zu halten. Brauchen, however, quite commonly takes the infinitive form instead of the participial, whether the dependent infinitive has a *zu* or is without it; see example in a. Sometimes *heissen*: Jesus hat die Armut und das Elend nie und nirgends konservieren wollen, sondern er hat sie bekämpft und zu bekämpfen *heissen* (Harnack's *Das Wesen des Christentums*, Sechste Vorlesung).

Note 3. If the dependent infinitive has active force, the participle of *lassen* may take either the participial form with *ge-* or that without it, but if the dependent infinitive has passive force the participle usually takes the form without *ge-*: *Die Mutter hat das Kind fallen lassen* (or *gelaßen*), but *Die Mutter hat das Kind taufen lassen* (not *gelaßen*).

b. If the verb is understood, both constructions are found: *Wir haben nicht weiter [gehen] gekonnt*, or less commonly *können*. The use of the infinitive here is strictly confined to the modal auxiliaries.

c. The participle which has the form of the infinitive, usually, as in the preceding examples, stands at the end of the sentence, but it may sometimes, especially when the dependent infinitive is modified by other words, stand before the first dependent infinitive or its modifiers: *Wir hätten uns doch nicht sollen ins Bockshorn jagen lassen*. For especial emphasis also, the dependent infinitive sometimes stands in the emphatic position at the end of the sentence, even when it is not modified: *Du hättest können schweigen* You could at least have kept *still*. Also for especial emphasis the auxiliary may be removed from the usual position at the end of the sentence to the exceptional and hence emphatic position before the dependent infinitive: *Er hat das sollen und müssen tun* He just *had* to do that. This position of the auxiliary before the dependent infinitive is now, in general, rather unusual and strictly confined to the above cases, but in earlier parts of the period it was quite common and not thus restricted. Popular and poetical language still frequently show here the older usage.

d. In the passive, however, the past participle of the auxiliary assumes its regular participial form: *Man hat den Arzt kommen lassen* *They have sent for the doctor*, but in the passive form: *Der Arzt wurde kommen gelassen*. This passive construction is not found except in case of *lassen*, *lehren*, and *heißen*, and also there it is not used if the dependent infinitive has passive force. Thus instead of *Die Brücke wurde bauen gelassen* we must choose some other construction. When used in the passive, *heißen* and *lehren*, differing from *lassen*, require *zu* before the dependent infinitive, and the former usually, and the latter often, prefers as subject the word representing the thing to that representing the person, the person standing in the dat.: *Es wurde ihm*, or *Er wurde frühzeitig gelehrt*, *Gott zu vertrauen*, but usually *Es ist mir geheißen worden, dies zu tun*.

e. In the perfect infinitive, made up of the perf. participle of the auxiliary and the infinitive of *haben* (as for example *gekonnt haben*), the participle of the auxiliary usually assumes the form of the infinitive, when an infinitive depends upon it, or may here sometimes remain in participial form: *Er wird das Buch nicht früher **haben** erscheinen lassen können*, or *haben können erscheinen lassen* He probably has not been able to have the book published before. *Du mußt deine Hauptforderung fallen gelassen haben* (G. Hauptmann's *Vor Sonnenaufgang*, 5). The future perfect tense *er wird gekonnt haben* becomes *er wird haben (schreiben) können*, the *haben* preceding the other infinitives and the *können* either standing at the end or after *haben* before the other infinitives, according to *c.* above.

Note. The regular part. form, however, should be used instead of the infinitive

form in a contracted clause, formed with *zu* and a perf. infinitive: *Ich wünschte, dies schon gestern tun gedurft zu haben*, not *haben tun zu dürfen*, as *zu* can only stand before a genuine infinitive and not before a word which is in fact a participle. This rule is more frequently violated by even good authors than it is followed, apparently because the speaker or writer, not seeing clearly into the construction at the time, takes the closing part. for an infinitive: *Nur eins schmerzt mich: der edlen unglücklichen Frau da drüben nicht sagen zu dürfen, wie tief ich es nachträglich beklage, zwischen ihr und ihrem unwürdigen Gatten die Rolle des Mittlers haben spielen zu wollen* (Spielhagen's *Selbstgerecht*, p. 115). *Er fühlte sich versucht, dem Metar zu sagen, daß er es schon bereue, mit seinen Verwandten sich einen Scherz haben machen zu wollen* (Deutsche Rundschau). It is usually better to avoid here the contracted clause altogether and employ a full proposition: *daß er mit seinen Verwandten sich einen Scherz habe machen wollen*.

C. When an auxiliary and not an independent verb, *werden* drops the *ge* of the past part.: *Er ist gelobt worden* *He has been praised*, but *Er ist krank geworden* *He has become sick*. See also E.

D. A few adj. participles without *ge*, survivals of a period when the part. had no *ge*, are still found: *rechtschaffen upright*, lit. created right; *trunken drunk*; *sotan'* (, i. e., so getan) *such*, lit. thus fashioned, now rare; the following participial compounds, which, however, also have a regular form with *ge*: *altbacken* or *altgebacken* stale, *hausbacken* or *hausgebacken* home-baked, home-made, *neubacken* or *neugebacken* new-baked, *frischbacken* or *frischgebacken* new-baked, *halbwaschen* or *halbgewaschen* half-grown, *neumwaschen* or *neugewaschen* newly-washed, *hausgewebt* or *hausgeweben* home-woven, and occasionally *hausmachen* (for *hausgemacht*) *home-made*, in analogy with those in *=backen*.

E. A few participles without *ge* are found in early N.H.G. and less frequently still later in the classical period, and even to-day in S.G. dialect, especially *kommen* to come, *kriegen* to get, *werden* (even when an independent verb): *Ich habe das Geld erst den 19. Januar friegt* (Goethe). Often still in case of *werden* in poetic or archaic style: *Der ist ein Welscher worden* (F. Dahn's *Ein Kampf um Rom*, I, 1). For further treatment and explanation, see 246. II. 4. a. (especially towards the end) and c. (2).

VERBALS.

179. Those simple verb-forms which partake of the nature of verbs and have in addition the function and inflection of adjectives or nouns are the *gerundive*, *participles*, and *infinitives*.

GERUNDIVE.

180. The gerundive assumes two forms, one for the predicate and one for the attributive relation.

A. *Predicate Gerundive*. The infinitive with *zu* assumes a peculiar force in the predicate. Though active in form, it here has passive force and expresses the necessity, possibility, or fitness of an action: *Es ist viel zu tun* There is much that must be done. *Luft ist überall zu haben* Air can be had everywhere. *Das steht nicht zu ändern* That cannot be changed. *Der Schmerz ist kaum zu ertragen* The pain can scarcely be borne. *Dieses Fleisch ist nicht zu essen* This meat is not fit to be eaten. *Er ist zu loben* He ought to be praised.

This construction is found in the following common cases:

a. As predicate complement of the intransitives *sein* to be, *bleiben* to remain, *gehen* to be possible, can, *stehen* (= *sein*, but not so common) to be, and sometimes *scheinen* to seem: *Es bleibt abzuwarten* It remains to be seen. *Wie wunderbar, daß des einen Glück hienieden nur immer auf dem Unglück eines anderen aufzubauen geht!* (Hans Hopfen's *Stellvertreter*, II, 1). *Es steht zu hoffen* It is to be hoped. *Raum scheint es zu glauben* (Goethe) It seems scarcely credible. *Da war so vieles zu sehen* There was so much there to be seen. *Es war nicht zu ertragen* It was not to be endured. *Von diesem bin ich zu retten* I can be rescued by him. In English this passive construction survives in only a few expressions: *The house is to let. He is to blame. This is to eat. Now usually passive form: He is to be censured.* The older construction, however, is still quite common where the infinitive is used attributively: *the man to blame, the thing to do, a duty to perform.* The passive form is also often used here: *a question to be lightly touched upon.* In German the attributive phrase must be rendered by an adjective clause of which the gerundive is the predicate, or the form in B may be employed: *der Mann, der zu tadeln wäre*; or *der zu tadelnde Mann*.

Note 1. If the predicate verb governs the gen. or dat., the subject of the sentence is always the impersonal *es*, expressed or understood: *Einem Einwurfe ist hier noch vorzusehmen* (Lessing) There is here still one objection that must be met.

Note 2. As reflexive verbs in general cannot form a passive, they ought not to be used in this construction, but occasionally in popular language cases can be found: *Auf jedem öffentlichen Balle ist sich in der Reihenfolge der Tänze genau an die Tanzordnung zu halten*, instead of *hat man sich*, &c.

b. After *geben* in its impersonal forms, *es gibt there is*, *es gab there was*, &c.: *Es gibt noch viel zu tun* There is still much to be done.

c. As objective predicate, or object-complement, especially after *finden*, *haben*, and *sehen*: *Ich fand an ihr vieles anzusetzen* I found in her a good deal to criticise. See 185. A. I. 6 for fuller list of such verbs.

B. *Attributive Gerundive.* This form is made up of the present part. with *zu* prefixed and like the participle has the declension of adjectives. It is a N.H.G. formation created in order to express attributively the same idea that had already proved so convenient in its predicate form (explained in A above). It has therefore the same force as the predicate gerundive: *der zu tadelnde Schüler* the pupil who *is to be censured*; *die zu fällenden Bäume* the trees that are to be cut down; *ein von dir zu verbessernder Fehler* an error that must be corrected by you; *diese leicht zu lösende Aufgabe* this task that can easily be performed; *ein leicht zu erreichendes Ziel* a goal that can easily be reached; *allmählich zu leistende Zahlungen* payments that are to be gradually met; *ein nicht zu übersehender Umstand* a circumstance that ought not to be overlooked.

a. The attributive gerundive is avoided in case of verbs which govern the gen. or dat.: instead of *der zu denkende Vorfall* the incident that *is to be mentioned* we can say: *Der Vorfall, dessen man denken muß*; instead of *die zu gehorchenden Gesetze* the laws which *are to be obeyed* we can say: *Die Gesetze, denen man gehorchen muß.* Or if the short gerundive expression is preferred, the verb can be changed and a synonym selected which governs the acc. and thus admits of this construction: *Der zu erwähnende Vorfall* and *die zu befolgenden Gesetze.*

b. Since the gerundive is passive in force we would not naturally expect to find it formed in intransitive verbs, but notwithstanding the oft-repeated protests of grammarians this compact construction is still frequently used by good authors with active meaning and the peculiar modal force of the gerundive:—*Daß man das Geschehene sich eher gefallen läßt, als daß man in ein noch zu Geschehendes einwilligt* (Goethe); *die voranzugehende Bedingung* (Hegel). *Wünsche eine recht wohlzuschlafende* (see 182. 2. *b*) *Nacht, Herr Amtmann* (Raabe's *Odfeld*, chap. viii). We have a similar construction in English: the life to come.

THE PARTICIPLES.

181. Participles are so called because they participate in the nature both of the verb and of the adj. They sometimes have the force and construction of verbs, sometimes a force approaching nearer that of the adj., but they always have the inflection of the adj., except in their adverbial use (see *a*), and also when the adj. force is stronger than the verbal they are compared like adjectives: *Die Gefahr ist drohend, die drohende Gefahr, eine treffendere Antwort an answer more to the point, mein geliebtester Freund.* For points concerning comparison see 115. 4 and 114. 3.

a. Both participles can be used as adverbs and then remain uninflected: *stehend heißes Wasser* boiling hot water, *ein ausgezeichnet gelehrter Mann* a very finely educated man. The present part. often expresses manner: *Er lernt spielend* He learns as easily as if it were play.

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE.

182. The leading points concerning the use of the present part. are:

1. The present participle can be used:

A. As an adjective: *das singende Kind, die untergehende Sonne.* *Man fand ihn schlafend* (objective predicate). *Du liegst hier träumend* (predicate appositive).

a. The present participle is not only inflected as an adjective, but also governs the same case, or takes the same construction as the verb from which it is formed. If the part. has thus a complement or adverbial modifiers, they must stand before it: *der die Festung überraschende Feind* the enemy taking the fortress by storm, *die dem Fremden gehörenden Sachen* the things belonging to the stranger, *ein am Flusse stehendes Haus.* *Nun war Margarete ganz fremd im Waterhause, allen ein Stein des Anstoßes, alle hassend, von allen gehaßt.* Notice that in the attributive relation, as in the first three examples, the participle stands immediately before the noun, not after it as in English. The position of the participle after the noun is rare in the attributive relation except in the cases described for the adjective in 104. 2. *B. a.* The predicate appositive, however, as *hassend* in the last example, is usually separated from the noun.

b. The pres. part. is not used predicatively, if the verbal element becomes prominent. Thus we do not as in English say *Der Lehrer ist lobend*, but *Der Lehrer lobt* The teacher is praising. But when it is felt as an adj. it can like any adj. stand in the predicate: *Dieses Bild ist reizend* This picture is charming. *Die Frage ist brennend* The question is one that is exciting interest. *Der Beweis ist schlagend* The proof is a striking one. *Er ist noch immer leidend* He is still

sickly. For the earlier use of the present participle in the predicate with verbal force see 180. I. G.

c. The English present participle is here often replaced by other constructions in German: The fog came pouring in at the window *Der Nebel kam zum Fenster hereingeströmt*. He came running *Er kam gelaufen*. I cannot go on doing nothing *Ich kann nicht fortfahren, nichts zu tun*. I do not like him coming here so often *Ich habe es nicht gern, daß er so oft herkommt*. Who told you of your wife being there? *Wer sagte Ihnen, daß Ihre Frau da war?*

B. As a noun to denote persons engaged at the time in question in an action, duty, or occupation, or in case of neuter substantives to denote the characteristic feature of an act, or to represent something as continuing or acting: *der Redende* the speaker, *ein Geschäftsreisender* a commercial traveller, *der Vorstehende* the chairman, *die Umstehenden* the bystanders, *das Demütigende dieses Auftritts* the humiliating nature of this scene, *das Überraschende dieses Ereignisses* the surprising character of this event, *alles Seiende* all that exists. *Die Sprache ist kein fertiges, ruhendes Ding, sondern etwas in jedem Augenblick werdendes und vergehendes*.

a. Corresponding to the English participle in *ing*, the adjective-verbal, is a noun-verbal in *ing*, the gerund. There is no such correspondence in German. The English gerund is variously translated: *Seeing is believing* *Sehen ist glauben*. She stopped writing *Sie hörte auf zu schreiben*. She finished writing *Sie kam mit dem Schreiben zu Ende*. I like getting up early *Ich stehe gern früh auf*. I do not like his coming here so often *Ich habe es nicht gern, daß er so oft herkommt*. Who told you of your wife's being there? *Wer sagte Ihnen, daß Ihre Frau da war?* I put the money into my pocket without looking at it *Ich steckte das Geld, ohne es zu besehen, in die Tasche*. Instead of helping us he abandoned us *Anstatt daß er uns hätte helfen sollen, or Anstatt uns zu helfen, verließ er uns*. By cutting off the supplies *durch Abschneidung der Zufuhr*.

C. As an adverb; see 181. a.

D. As a prep. in case of *während* (w. gen.) *during*.

E. As an appositive to a noun or pronoun where it with its modifiers is equivalent to a subordinate clause: *Dies hörend* (= *Als er dies hörte*), *brach er in Tränen aus*. It is also used absolutely; see 265. B.

Note. The use of such participial clauses instead of complete subordinate clauses is more common in poetry than in prose, but in both prose and poetry is much less common than in English. In German the participial construction in its adverbial use can generally only be used, as in the example given above, where the subject of the participle is also the subject of the principal verb, but also there only sparingly. Only in one case is the adverbial participial construction quite common, namely, in place of a clause of manner to express an attendant circumstance: *„Der Winter war zu lang und streng für dich,“ sagte ihr Gatte, besorgt auf ihre bleichen Wangen blickend. Den ganzen Tag arbeitet er mit einem alten Diener im Garten, schneidend, begießend, pflanzend, und hegend* (H. Seidel's *Eine Sperlingsgeschichte*). A participle may also sometimes denote a cause, only, however, when the cause of the act is represented as lying in the state of the mind of the subject of the leading verb, otherwise a complete subordinate clause must here be used: *Einen Sturm fürchtend, kehrten wir nach dem Lande (shore) zurück*, but *Da ich keine Antwort erhielt, wußte ich nicht, wie ich handeln sollte*. Aside from the above-mentioned cases, the student would do better to render English participial clauses used adverbially by complete sub-

ordinate clauses, as in many instances the participial construction cannot be used at all: Als ich in Paris wohnte, brachte ich viele Zeit im Louvre zu *While living in Paris I spent much time in the Louvre*. Bevor wir die Stelle erreichten, &c. *Before reaching the spot, we, &c.* It should be especially noted that participial clauses of cause formed with *being* or *having* should be rendered by complete subordinate clauses: Da er noch nicht ausgehen konnte, mußte er zu Hause bleiben *Not being yet able to walk out, he had to stay at home*. Da ich nichts zu tun hatte, ging ich ins Theater *Having nothing else to do, I went to the theatre*. The adverbial expression *generally speaking* is translated by the perfect participle: Mein Vater hatte sich, allgemein gesprochen, unter voller Selbstbeherrschung. Adjective clauses, however, are very often rendered by present participles, but then the participle must usually be inflected and stand before the noun, and not after it as in English: Die auf meinem Tische stehende Flasche enthält Gift *The bottle standing or which stands upon my desk contains poison*. It may also sometimes stand after the noun; see 104. 2. B. a.

2. The pres. part. has as a rule active force. When it limits a noun, its relation thereto is such that the noun is conceived of as the subject of the action contained in the part.: der blühende Baum *the blooming tree* = der Baum blüht.

a. The pres. part., however, has also passive force, as seen in a few set expressions sanctioned by long usage, but in our own time reduced in number in comparison with former periods: fahrende (construed also as active) Habe *chattels* = Habe, die gefahren wird; die melkende Kuh *the cow that is milked*, milch cow; die ringenden Hände *hands that are wrung*; das betreffende Buch *the book in question* = das Buch, das betroffen wird; sein in Mythikon habendes Amt (C. F. Meyer) *the (pastoral) charge in Mythikon filled by him*; kraft seines tragenden Amtes (Storm's *Söhne des Senators*, p. 301) *by virtue of the office held by him*; für die Bedürfnisse und etwaigen Eventualitäten Ihres vorhabenden Ausfluges (Spielhagen's *Was will das werden*, II, 10), &c. We do not commonly say to-day as formerly seine dabei liegende Absicht *the intention that is cherished by him*, die in der Hand habende kleine Orgel (Goethe), *the little organ that is being held in his hand*, &c.

b. The noun in connection with the pres. part. is not always its subject, but is sometimes associated with it in a much freer way, to express a close relationship between the idea contained in the noun and the activity contained in the participle: eine schwindelnde Höhe *a height at which one becomes dizzy*; eine wohl-schlafende Nacht *a night favorable to sleep*; eine lächelnde Antwort; es ist jetzt zehn, also nachtschlafende Zeit (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. xii) *time for everybody to be asleep*; eine sitzende Lebensweise *a sedentary life*, &c. This is a productive construction according to which from time to time new and felicitous expressions have been created, but the list is limited, and we cannot at will form kindred expressions, such as eine zitternde Kälte *a temperature at which one trembles with cold*, &c.

3. There is a decided paucity of participles in German, there being in the active only one form—the present. Hence the pres. part. is used for the past and future active as well as for the present: die vor kurzem noch blühenden Blumen = die Blumen, welche vor kurzem blühten; die jetzt oder früher oder künftig lebenden Menschen = die Menschen, welche jetzt leben, oder welche gelebt haben, oder leben werden.

In a relative sense the present participle expresses time contemporaneous with that of some other action, and hence it should express the same time as that of the principal verb, but the real lack of different participles leads many to use the present participle also for time preceding or following that of the main proposition: contemporaneous action: Siegend starb der Held. Antecedent action: Den 26. Oktober von Zürich abreisend, langten wir den 6. November in

Nürnberg an (Goethe). Neben Marie tretend, sang Uda (Spielhagen). Subsequent action: Uda war in die Gesellschaft zurückgetreten, den Dank derselben entgegennehmend (id.).

THE PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

183. The leading points concerning the use of this participle are :

1. The perfect participle can be used :

A. Adjectively: der gebrochene Stab. Der Stab ist gebrochen (predicate). Man fand ihn eingeschlafen (objective predicate). Er socht mit Wunden bedeckt (predicate appositive) He fought covered with wounds. In the conjugation of verbs: Er ist gekommen (predicate). Er wird geschlagen (predicate). Ich habe den Brief geschrieben (objective predicate).

Note. The perf. part. is much more used in German in the predicate and appositive relation than it is in English: Ich weiß wohl, was ihr mögt, ihr alten Böhmen! | gekauert sitzen in verjährtem Wust (Grillparzer's *König Ottokar*, 1). Es klang ohne irgendwelchen Spott gefragt (Jensen's *Die Kinder vom Oedacker*, 1) There was no trace of sarcasm in the tone of the question. For other examples see 185. B. II. b.

B. Substantively :

a. To denote persons or things in a state or condition produced by the action expressed in the verb (see 2. below): der Getötete the man who was killed, der Gelehrte the scholar, die Angeklagte, the accused woman, defendant, das Übertriebene dieser Behauptung the exaggerated character of this statement, das Geschehene that which has happened, Althergebrachtes time-honoured customs.

b. As subject or predicate, always without inflection, to denote a *general* condition of things (see also 111. 7. h. (2)): Schlecht geritten ist besser als gut gegangen Bad riding is better than good walking. Feuer auf den Herd gemacht ist gut für Gewitter Fire upon the hearth is good protection against lightning. This use of the part. differs from the preceding in that the part. here may have active force and can even take an object, as in the second sentence, while in a it has passive force in words formed from transitives and active force in words formed from intransitives; see 2. A. below.

C. As adverbs; see 181. a.

D. As a prep. in a few cases, as in unbeschadet (w. gen. & dat.) without detriment to, ungeachtet in spite of.

E. As an imperative; see 177. I. B. d.

F. As an appositive to a following or preceding noun or pronoun where it with its modifiers is equivalent to a subordinate clause: Allzustraff gespannt (= wenn er allzustraff gespannt wird), zerspringt der Bogen. It is also used absolutely; see 265. B.

G. It is often used in vivid language without close grammatical relations almost with the force of an independent verb indicating past time: Heut früh wieder Juden, ich eine lange Rede gegen die Emancipation gehalten, viel Bittres gesagt (Bismarck to his betrothed, June 15, 1847). Ich bitt euch, schreibt nieder: Als Soldat die Pflicht getan. Im Tirolerland gefallen auf dem Felde. Im Frieden gestorben. Und das, das schreibt ihnen auch: Einen guten Menschen zur Seite gehabt (Rosegger in *Wirt an der Mahr*). Vater, der war mir früher alles gewesen — der war auf Reisen, und

ich nicht aus, nicht ein gewußt (Sudermann's *Es lebe das Leben*, p. 27). See also 190. I. A. b. (1) and (2).

2. A. The perf. participle used adjectively and substantively expresses usually a condition or state of things resulting from previous action but at the time in question finished and completed, and hence with the exception of the case in I. B. b. above can only be used (1) with transitive verbs with passive force, and (2) with active force with intransitive verbs that are conjugated with *sein* and represent a state or condition resulting from previous action. According to the very nature of this part., which expresses a condition, it cannot be used with intransitive verbs which are conjugated with *haben* and express action, or with reflexive verbs which express action of the subject exerted upon itself. Thus we can say: Der gelähmte Fuß the foot that has been lamed and is now in a lame condition; also der umgefallene Baum the tree which has fallen and is still prostrate, for we say Der Baum ist umgefallen, the auxiliary *sein* expressing state; also substantively der Gesandte the ambassador, i. e. the one who has been sent, Erwachsene grown people. But grammarians maintain we should not say (though very many do) die stattgehabte Unterredung the interview which has taken place, nor das mich betreffende Unglück the misfortune which has befallen me, for neither of these participles represents a condition resulting from previous action, but both express only simple action.

B. The lack of a perf. part. with active force for transitives and those intransitives that are conjugated with *haben* leads some to use the perf. part. (already described as limited to passive use with transitives and active use with such intransitives as are conjugated with *sein*) with active force, or more commonly to make a special form by adding *habend* to the perfect participle: von seiner mit den Jahren zugenommenen Herzenskälte (Gutzkow's *Söhne Pestalozzis*, 2, 394). Ein Auswärtiger — so hörte ich — habe das früher dort gestandene geräumige, aber verfallene Gebäude in Erbgang oder sonstwie erworben (Storm's *John Riew*). Der schon stark gefrühtückte Kantorssohn (Fontane's *Unterm Birnbaum*, xi); dieser so schön begonnene Abend (Jensen's *Jenseits des Wassers*, II, 17). Auf einem grünen, bequemen Sofa lag der rechtskundige Beistand der gekränkten oder gekränkt habenden Menschheit (Raabe's *Pechlin*, II. chap. xvii). Das Wärrerhäuschen trug überall die Spuren eines hier heftig getobt habenden Kampfes (Liliencron's *Krieg und Frieden*, Das Wärrerhäuschen). In case of reflexives and transitives the reflexive pronoun or substantive object are used in connection with these two participial formations: an diesem nach und nach sich verbreiteten Geheimniß (Goethe); das den Grafen befallene Unglück (id.); and quite commonly in case of *stattgehabt* and *stattgefunden*: stattgehabte, stattgefundene Festlichkeiten. Vergeblich türmte er ihm alle während derselben Zeit sich erhoben habenden Schwierigkeiten und Anstöße vor der Nase auf (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. xxvii). Grammarians do not favor any of these formations, although they have been employed by good authors. Usage has found a way out of this difficulty in a number of cases; see C. a and b.

C. There are, however, to the rule as stated in A above a few

exceptions or apparent exceptions which have been sanctioned by good usage :

a. A number of transitive verbs and intransitives which are conjugated with *haben* have a perfect participle with active force, which can be defended, as these participles are in reality felt as adjectives or adjective-substantives, since they denote a quality, fixed habit, or state: *abgesagt* professed, open (*ein abgesagter Feind*), *berandert* versed, *erfahren* experienced, *gedient* veteran, *gelernt* by trade (*ein gelernter Schuhmacher*), *Geschworener* jurymen, *studirt* well-read, educated, *trunken* drunk(en), *verlogen* mendacious, *verschwiegen* taciturn, &c.

b. A few reflexive verbs have a perf. participle unaccompanied by *sich*: *bedacht* mindful of, *betrunken* drunk(en), *bescheiden* modest, *verdient* (from early N.H.G. *sich verdienen*, now replaced by *sich um etwas verdient machen*) of merit (*ein verbienter Mann*), *verliebt* in love, enamored, *erfaltet*, *erhigt*, *geübt*, &c. Thus we can say: *Das Kind hat sich erfaltet* and *ein erfaltetes Kind*. Also *Die Verhältnisse haben sich verändert*, and *die veränderten Verhältnisse*. But the formation of perf. participles from reflexives is in present usage limited, and often to avoid ambiguity recourse must be taken to the much censured construction of placing the reflexive pronoun before the past part., or in choice language to the formation of a relative clause or some other construction: *Der sich zurückgezogene* or *sich zurückgezogen habende Seidenhändler*, or in choice language *Der Seidenhändler, der sich zurückgezogen hat*, or *Der in der Zurückgezogenheit lebende Seidenhändler*.

c. A class of trans. and intrans. verbs form a perf. part. with active force which are only apparent exceptions, as these participles comply with the general rule in that they express a condition: *Ich ritt ungewaschen und ungefrühstückt gegen Sedan (Bismarck)*. *Karl mußte ungeessen zu Bette gehen* C. had to go to bed without having eaten, i.e., in the condition of being hungry. *Friß, ungebetet ist man nicht (Gerok)*. *Lieber ungeessen ins Himmelreich, als mit allen Taschen voll Proviant in d'Höll!* (Anzengruber's *Das vierte Gebot*, I, II). *Er ging unpräparirt zur Schule*. Thus also *ungetrunken*, *ungebeichtet*, &c. The participle here may also be construed as an adverb. Perhaps such words were originally regular participles with passive force, the active force arising later from a shifting of the grammatical relations between the words of the sentence: *Ungeessen kann ich die Speise nicht beurtheilen*, where the participle refers to *Speise*. Later the participle was brought into relations with *ich*, and such sentences arose as the second one given above.

The noun or pronoun used in connection with such a participle is usually its subject, but sometimes here, as in 182. 2. *b*, the participle is used in a much freer way to express a close relationship between the idea contained in the noun and the activity contained in the participle: *Und nun fühlte sie die ungeschlafene Nacht (Ilse Frapan's Wegscheide)* And now she felt the effects of the sleepless night.

d. A perfect participle cannot be formed from all intransitive verbs that are conjugated with *sein*, but only from those in which a condition resulting from the action of the verb is expressed. Thus we can say *ein entlaufener Sklave* an escaped slave, because the

slave has changed his condition by escaping from bondage, but we cannot say ein gelaufener Sklave, although we say Der Sklave ist gelaufen. *The slave has run*, because there is no change of state resulting from the action.

3. The past part. does not necessarily imply past time, but also often present or future time, as there is no other participial form with passive force. It refers to the past when the context points to the past, as in Der am 15. d. (dieses Monats) eröffnete Ausverkauf wird noch bis Ende des Monats fortgesetzt, but it also refers very often to an action that continues in present time: mein verehrter Freund, die geliebte Mutter, &c. Thus also Er ist bemüht, bestrebt, &c. See also 184. e. Future time: Das Gericht wollte sich auch nicht so ohne weiteres mit einer vielleicht nachher getadelten Arbeit belasten (Immermann's *Münchhausen*, 2, 321).

184. On account of the paucity of participles attempts are being made to form additional ones to supply the deficiency. The following will serve as examples of such, most of which are not yet generally accepted:

a. A present passive, formed with the perf. part. of the verb and the present part. of werden: Der gehofft werdende Sprößling the offspring that is being expected.

b. A future passive formed with the present passive infinitive of the verb and the pres. part. of werden: die in acht Tagen begangen werden werdende Festfeier the celebration that will be celebrated in a week. This construction is mentioned by Keller in his *Antibarbarus*, p. 66, but the author of the present work has not found it elsewhere.

c. A perf. part. with active force; see 183. 2. B.

d. It is now common to use a participial expression made up of the perfect participle of the verb and gewesen, which latter form indicates that the *state* or *condition* expressed by the participle of the verb existed in past time: der in jüngeren Jahren vielbegehrte gewesen Arzt the physician who in younger years was much sought after. See also 194. 4.

e. Usually the perf. passive has but one participial form (gelobt), and cannot show here the shades expressed by the two forms (regular passive and quasi-passive form; see 194. 1. A. & 4) of the indicative. To emphasize, however, the idea of a *state* or *condition* of things in *past* time the quasi-passive form in *d* above is often used. Since the usual perfect participle is not only used for past time, but also for present time, as in das von mir bewohnte Haus (= das Haus, das von mir bewohnt wird), ambiguity may arise: die von dem verstorbenen Rentier Sch. bewohnte Wohnung ist zu Ostern anderweit zu vermieten. The writer of this advertisement intended the participial form as a perfect, but, as G. Wustmann in his *Allerhand Sprachdummheiten*, p. 162, 3rd ed., remarks with regard to it, the resultant impression is rather an uncanny one, since the form may be construed as a present passive. The ambiguity can in the present instance be removed by using the quasi-passive form which calls attention to a past *state* of things: die von dem verstorbenen Rentier Sch. bewohnt gewesene Wohnung, &c. In order to call attention to a past *act*, a perfect passive part. corresponding to the regular perf. passive indic. is occasionally

formed by adding *worden* to the perfect participle of the verb: *die zwei verloren gegangenen oder vielmehr vergessenen Väter* (Raabe's *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. x).

f. Participles formed from the modal auxiliaries are now occasionally found, usually in connection with a dependent infin.: *der sein sollende Wit* the utterance that was intended to be witty, *daß nicht enden wollende Gelächter* the laughter that did not seem to desire to come to an end.

THE INFINITIVE.

185. The infinitive was in an earlier period inflected as a noun and at the same time preserved its verbal nature by admitting of a direct object. The remnant of this older usage of inflecting the infinitive is the so-called infinitive with *zu*. This form of the infinitive is in fact a noun in the dat. governed by the prep. *zu*. This *zu*, as can still be seen in many sentences, originally meant *towards* and pointed to that towards which the activity of the principal verb was directed: *Wir zwangen ihn zu dienen (zum Dienst)* We compelled him to serve. *Entschließe dich zu arbeiten (zur Arbeit)* Make up your mind to work. *Ich ging aus, einen Freund zu besuchen* I went out to call on a friend. This *zu*, however, is often not felt as a prep. but rather as a part of the infinitive itself, and hence this prepositional infinitive is now no longer confined to the dat. relation, but may also indicate the nom. and acc. relation, where formerly the simple infinitive without *zu* could alone be used: *Nachzuahmen erniedrigt einen Mann von Kopf.* *Sie fing an zu weinen.* But in M.H.G.: *der helt (Held) dō (dann) trüren (trauern) began* (Nibelungenlied). The use of the infinitive with *zu* has greatly gained on that of the simple infinitive, but as the latter is still in certain instances used in the nom. and acc. relation, it is necessary to note carefully the following detailed statements as to when the simple infinitive and when the infinitive with *zu* is used:

A. THE INFINITIVE WITH *zu*.

I. The infinitive with *zu* is used:

1. In the following independent relations:

a. As the subject of a verb: *Zu überlegen ist nicht die Sache der Jugend.* *Sich mitzuteilen ist Natur* To communicate one's thought and feeling is the impulse of nature. *Seine Schuldigkeit getan zu haben ist ein Trost im Unglück.* The infinitive without *zu* is also used here; see B. I. 1. a.

b. In the predicate after certain verbs (see 180. A. a) as a gerundive with passive force, and with active force after *dünken* (in early N.H.G. without *zu*; see Prov. xxi. 2) to seem and *scheinen* to appear: *Es ist viel zu tun* There is much to be done. *Eine solche Behandlung ist nicht zu ertragen* Such treatment is not to be borne. *Der Fall dünkt mich dieser zu sein.* *Er scheint ein ehrlicher Mann zu sein.*

2. In the following dependent relations:

a. As the complement of a noun or adjective, representing the

genitive of a substantive: Die Kunst zu schreiben (= des Schreibens) war den Ägyptern bekannt. Er ist müde länger zu leben (= Er ist des Lebens müde).

b. In the dat. relation, as the object of the prep. zu, after verbs, verbal nouns, and adjectives, to express, in accordance with the general meaning of zu, the aim, purpose, direction of the action or quality: Da treibt's ihn, den köstlichen Preis zu erwerben. Der Feind zwingt uns, die Festung zu verlassen. Er hatte den Hang, stets der Vollkommenheit seines eignen Wesens zuzustreben. Er ist geneigt zu übertreiben.

Note. This is the original use of zu with the infinitive. Here the zu is not the mere sign of the infinitive as in 1. *a.* and *b.* above, but a real prep. used in its usual sense of *direction towards*.

c. In the acc. relation, as the direct object of the verb: Das Kind beginnt zu reden, wie es anhebt zu denken. Warum versäumte man mich zu erinnern? For exceptions see B. I. 2. *a, b, c, d, e.*

3. As explanatory of a preceding anticipative subject or object, which appears in the form of the indefinite es or a pronominal adverb. In apposition with a subject: Es ziemt | dem edeln Mann, der Frauen Wort zu achten (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 5, 3). In the relation of subject the simple infinitive is also used here; see B. I. 1. *a.*, below. In apposition with the object of a verb: Er wünscht es sehnlich, dich nur noch einmal wiederzusehen. In apposition with a pronoun which is the object of a prep., but which has in German only the form of an adverb: Wir sind bereit dazu, dich zu unterstützen. Jeder muß danach trachten, seine Seele vom Bösen rein zu erhalten.

4. Certain complete substantive and adverbial clauses (see 269. 3; 271. I. *c*; 272. A. *d*, C. *g*, D. *c*; 276. C. *b*; 277. 2. *b*; 281. *b*) may be contracted to infinitive clauses with zu, anstatt zu, ohne zu, or um zu. For examples see the references just given. The infinitive clauses can usually without changing the meaning be expanded into complete subordinate clauses, and complete subordinate clauses can be contracted to the infinitive construction. It should be noted, however, that in case of the verb wissen there is a difference of meaning between the two constructions: Er weiß, daß er seinen Willen durchsetzt *He knows that he will get his own way*, but Er weiß seinen Willen durchzusetzen *He knows how to get his own way*.

5. The infinitive with or without zu is often employed in exclamations and in general in excited or vivid language, where without precise grammatical relations it becomes the bearer of the thought: Ich möcht' euch alle mit eigener Hand umbringen! Was, **fortlaufen**! Er hatte keine Handvoll Leute mehr! **Fortzulaufen**, vor einem Mann! (Hauptmann in Lager scene in 3rd Act of Goethe's *Götz*). See also B. I. 4, below.

6. After (an)treffen, bekommen, erhalten, finden, geben, gehen (180. A. *a*) *to be possible*, haben, kommen, lassen (= übrig lassen), machen (see B. I. 2. *d.* toward end), schenken, schicken, schlagen, sehen, überlassen, and the impersonals es gibt, es gilt, where the infinitive with zu has something of the force of the gerundive (see 180. A), expressing necessity or future obligation: Wir trafen viele Unordnungen im Hause zu beseitigen an We found on our arrival much disorder that had to be removed. Er bekam oft Rügen zu hören (= er mußte hören). Es wird fortan nichts mehr

zu lachen geben (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, III, p. 210) From now on there will be nothing to laugh about. Da hat die Menge was *zu* gaffen (Fulda's *Talisman*, 2, 12). Hast du doch wieder was *zu* ärgern, Hans (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, Act 1). Er hat viel *zu* tun. Haben Sie mich noch wohin *zu* schicken? Ich komme noch auf ihn *zu* sprechen I shall have occasion to speak about him later. Sie kam neben ihm *zu* sitzen Chance brought it about that she should sit near him. Er kam unten *zu* liegen. Das läßt noch viel *zu* wünschen. Anna hat ihr wirklich nicht viel *zu* schaffen gemacht (Hauptmann's *E. M.*, Act 3) (see also B. I. 2. d. toward end) Anna has really not caused her much trouble, work. Weil die größeren Kostgänger des Pastors ihren Freund dabei mitunter überfielen und ihm den Kopf *zu* bluten schlugen (Storm's *Hans und Heinz Kirch*, p. 12).

For the construction after *es* gilt see *Note 2*.

Note 1. Some of these words are used here in a certain measure as auxiliaries and not as independent verbs, and it should be remembered that they also can be used in the latter way: Er hat (has, possesses) alte Röcke *zu* verkaufen.

Note 2. The impersonal *es* gilt was originally construed only with the acc. of a noun: Es gilt dein Glück, deinen Besitz Your happiness, your possessions are at stake, lit. It will cost your happiness, your possessions. The simple infinitive has substantive force, and was used as an acc. here: Sie gilt's im Finstern und blinzling gehen (Luther, *v. Abendm.*, 1528). In early N.H.G. the genitive of measure could also be used here as elsewhere instead of the acc. of measure (see 223. iv. 2. A. a.): Da gilt's Schweigens (Luther, *v. Abendm.*, 1528). Formerly the construction with *um* was also used: Und sollt's dem Teufel um ein Ohr gelten (Schiller's *Räuber*, 2, 3). Later the gen. and prep. constructions disappeared, and the infinitive with *zu* replaced in part the simple infinitive here as elsewhere, so that to-day both the infinitive with and less frequently without *zu* are used here: Es gilt uns heut', *zu* rühren des Königs steinern Herz (Uhland). Hier, wo es Worte künstlich setzen gilt (Ludwig's *Makkabäer*, 1). Also, um uns von all dem Schreck *zu* erholen, gilt es, eine amüsante Badesaison durchzumachen (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!* I, p. 55). Doch es galt das zerrinnende Geld ersetzen (Ompfeda's *Eysen*, chap. xii).

7. Quite rare is the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, as found in Latin and in part also in English, after verbs of reporting, thinking, knowing, supposing, wishing, &c. See B. I. 5, below.

II. 1. *Position and Repetition of zu.* The *zu* must stand immediately before the present infinitive, and if there are several, must be repeated before each one: Er hofft bald gesund *zu* werden. Der Lehrer gab uns ein Gedicht abzuschreiben und auswendig *zu* lernen. If there are several perfect infinitives, the *zu* is used but once, and stands between the last participle and the auxiliary, which is also used but once, being found with the last participle and understood with the others: Der Löwe, sagt Lichtenstein, greift einen Menschen oder ein Tier, das nicht vor ihm flieht, nie an, ohne sich vorher in einer Entfernung von zehn bis zwölf Schritten niedergelegt und seinen Sprung gemessen *zu* haben.

a. In case there are a number of present infinitives there is a tendency to drop the *zu* after it has been used once or twice, as the simple infinitive here as in I. 5 naturally becomes the bearer of the thought, the exact grammatical relations having faded from the mind: Wir sind nur da, über die Interessen unserer respectiven Staaten und Dynastien *zu* wachen, jeder drohenden Verringerung ihrer Machtstellung

entgegenzuarbeiten und jede mögliche Suprematie zu erringen trachten, eifersüchtig die Ehre des Landes hüten, uns angetanen Schimpf rächen (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!* II, p. 183).

2. *Subject of the Infinitive.* The infinitive is less used in German than in English, especially since it is not much used in the construction of the acc. with the infinitive, which is so common in Latin and English. Thus the infinitive construction in English must often be rendered in German by a complete subordinate clause: *I wish him to come* Ich wünsche, daß er komme. See also I. 7 above, and B. I. 5 below. In German the infinitive can only be used:

a. When the subject of the infinitive is identical with the subject or object of the verb in the principal proposition: Er verspricht, noch heute zu kommen. Dürfte ich Sie bitten, es zu tun? Er riet mir zu gehen.

Note 1. In a number of expressions the infinitive has a subject which is identical with the suppressed object of the principal verb: Ich bitte zu bedenken *I beg you to consider.* Ich rate zu warten *I advise you to wait.* Ich wünsche wohl geruht zu haben *I hope you have had a good night's rest.*

Note 2. Infinitive purpose clauses or clauses of result with zu, or um zu *in order to*, and infinitive clauses of manner with ohne *without* usually require their subject to be identical with the subject of the principal proposition. If such is not the case the subjects should be made to be identical by changing the subject in the principal proposition or in the infinitive clause, or the infinitive clause should be avoided and replaced by a complete subordinate clause, or, in case the verb in the purpose clause is not modified by too many objects or adverbial modifiers, be replaced by an infinitive-substantive or a verbal noun: not Die Unglücklichen sind hier untergebracht, ohne für ihre Pflege zu sorgen, but Man hat die Unglücklichen hier untergebracht, ohne für ihre Pflege zu sorgen; or Die Unglücklichen sind hier untergebracht, ohne daß für ihre Pflege gesorgt wäre. Er gab mir den Brief zum Abschreiben (not abzuschreiben). Er schickte sein Buch einem Freund zur Durchsicht. This rule requiring identical subjects in the principal proposition and in the infinitive clause is not always strictly followed, good usage occasionally admitting of violations: Die Mutter rief mich hinein, um ihr zu helfen.

b. The infinitive can be used when its subject is a general or indefinite one: Gelegenheit, Gutes zu tun, findet sich immer. Er befahl zu öffnen *He ordered somebody to open the door.* Er ist kein Rothschild und die Hauptmannspension ist nicht, um sich einen Biererzug davon zu halten (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, LXI). The infinitive must here be replaced by a subordinate clause, if its subject can possibly be construed as identical with the subject or object of the principal verb: not Er wünscht zu öffnen, as the translation of *He wishes somebody to open the door*, but Er wünscht, daß geöffnet werde, or daß man öffne, for the infinitive construction might mean *He wishes to open the door.*

c. As in English, an absolute infinitive with zu is often used, the subject of which has no reference to the subject or object of the principal verb: Die Wahrheit zu sagen, es sind schreckliche Leute, diese alten Öcherußer (Klopstock).

B. THE INFINITIVE WITHOUT zu.

I. The infinitive without zu is used in the following constructions:

1. In the following independent and dependent relations:

a. As subject of a verb, especially in short pithy sayings, also in general used here quite as correctly as the infinitive with *zu*, although perhaps not so frequently: Seinen Feinden vergeben ist edel. Frei atmen macht das Leben nicht allein. Ungeliebt durchs Leben gehen, ist mehr als Mißgeschick, es ist Schuld (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Unsühnbar*, V). Also as explanatory of the preceding anticipative subject *es* or *das*: Und herrlich deucht' es mich, die Fürstin sein | an eines Fürsten Seite (Schnitzler's *Der Schleier der Beatrice*, p. 138). Also the perfect infin.: Das wird mir ja unheimlich, sich dreißig Jahre—na, bis zum dreißigsten Jahre als Commis voyageur in der ganzen weiten Welt herumgetrieben haben und dann gar nichts mehr von ihr wissen wollen (Raabe's *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. ii). The infinitive without *to* is also found in older English: To know my deed, 't were best not *know* myself (Macbeth, 2, 2).

b. As a predicate, or to complete the meaning of the predicate after *bleiben* to remain, *fahren* to drive (intrans.), *gehen* to go, *heißen* to signify, *kommen* to come, *laufen* to run, *legen* to lay, *liegen* (rarely with infinitive, usually with pres. participle) to lie, *reiten* to ride, *sein* to be, *schicken* to send, *schleichen* to creep, *sich setzen* to sit down, *springen* (see ex.) to spring, leap, *stehen* (rarely with infin., usually with pres. part.) to stand, *wandeln* to walk, stroll, and the auxiliary *werden* in the future, future perfect, and the conditionals: Er bleibt sitzen. Wir gingen spazieren. Wir fuhren spazieren. Wir ritten spazieren. Genua liegt schlafen (Schiller's *Fiesco*, 2, 18). Sich allein leben heißt gar nicht leben To live for one's self is the same as not to live at all. Hinterdrein ist gut reden It is easy to talk after it is all over. Dem Himmel ist beten wollen auch beten. Die Mutter schickt das Kind schlafen. Mit den Lakaien hat man mich spazieren geschickt (W. Meyer-Förster's *Alt-Heidelberg*, 3, 7). Unheilbares Siechtum kannte ihn aus Zimmer und gestattete ihm höchstens, bei schöner Witterung ein wenig in dem kleinen Garten spazieren zu schleichen (H. Seidel's *Der Neuntöter*). Die Alte hatte sich drinnen in ihren Lehnstuhl schlafen gesetzt (Storm's *Auf der Universität*, vol. ii, p. 132). Der is (for ist) schon Klock (for Glock) sieben spazieren gegangen. Das heißt: spazieren gesprungen, muß man eigentlich sagen (Otto Ernst's *Die Gerechtigkeit*, 1, Verwandlung 1). Was steht ihr horden? (Schiller's *Die Piccolomini*, 4, 5). Und die Väter wandeln würdevoll in der nächsten Umgegend spazieren (H. Seidel's *Die Geschichte eines Tales*). Er wird loben. Er würde singen, wenn er nicht heiser wäre.

Note. *Fahren*, *gehen*, *kommen*, *laufen*, *legen*, *reiten*, *schicken*, *sich setzen*, and *springen*, cannot be freely used with the infinitive, but only occur in certain set expressions: Nach ein paar Wochen fuhr sie schon wieder eine andere Wohnung suchen (H. Bahr's *Theater*, p. 64). Er geht früh schlafen *He retires early*, but Er geht täglich eine Stunde, um besser zu schlafen *He takes an hour's walk every day, so that he may sleep better*. Er geht (kommt) Wasser holen. Er geht baden, essen, einkaufen. Ich gehe die Stimmung beobachten (Freitag's *Die Journalisten*, 2, 2). So trug er das unfeilige Schreiben ins nächste Postkästchen und ging dann, sich ausweinen, zu seiner Magdalene (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Rittmeister Brand*, chap. v). Sie ist sich ankleiden gegangen (Schubert's *Refugium peccatorum*, III, 4). Sie ging zu einer Nachbarin schwagen (Carl Busse's *Die schöne Andrea*). Michael kümmerte sich wenig um mich—dem mußtest du erst klar machen kommen, daß ich auch wer bin (Sudermann's *Es lebe das Leben*, p. 37). Ihr habt wohl wieder die ganze Nacht Licht gebrannt in eurer Kammer? Daß ich euch nicht mal das Licht wegnehmen komm'! (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, 1). Komm frühstücken, Mama (Berlepsch's *Fortunats Roman*, p. 15). Aber essen kannst du doch

zu uns kommen (Maria Janitschek's *Einer Mutter Sieg*, XVIII). Der Wind läuft schulen (L.G. *to hide*) There has fallen a dead calm. Sie hat sich auf dem Sofa schlafen gelegt. Die Husaren sind furagieren geritten. Examples with schiken and sich setzen are given above. Although in these and similar examples zu can sometimes be found the simple infinitive is still quite common. It must be remembered, however, that it has its limits. It is an old infinitive of purpose, which was once much more widely used, but is now replaced in most part by the infinitive with zu or um zu. Compare: ni qam gatairan, ak usulljan (Wulfila, Matth. v. 17) with Luther's translation of the same passage. The simple infinitive is also found here in older English: Go fetch me them (Gen. xxvii. 13).

In other expressions, however, the infinitive after some of these verbs is a mutilated present participle: Er geht spazieren (for spazierend). Ich dachte oft an den alten, originellen Mann, der halt doch auch in seinem Leben einen Punkt hatte, zu dem in weichen Stunden seine Sehnsucht wandern ging (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, XIV). This is always true in case of bleiben and werden (see 190. 1. G), and often so in case of fahren, gehen, reiten, schleichen, and wandeln, as in Er fährt or reitet spazieren.

After heißen and sein the infinitive is usually a true infinitive used as a predicate noun; see examples above. In several cases, however, the infinitive after sein may, possibly, be a pres. part.; see 190. 1. G.

c. As an imperative; see 177. I. B. e.

2. The simple infinitive is used in a number of dependent and independent relations after certain very common auxiliaries and auxiliary-like verbs. The original construction is little felt or completely forgotten. This infinitive stands:

a. As object after the modal auxiliaries dürfen, können, mögen, müssen, sollen, wollen, and in colloquial speech quite frequently brauchen *to need to*, which has come under the influence of this group, as it has assumed one of the older meanings of dürfen and is in general by its new meaning related to these words: Ich will gehen. Du brauchst bloß wollen (in choice language, *perhaps*, more frequently zu wollen), Hannes (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, Act 2). Some use the simple infinitive after brauchen even in their most careful productions: Ich weiß, ich weiß! Du brauchst ihr Lob nicht singen (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Eine Vision*). Ich bin die Schlange nicht, daß du vor meinem Blicke brauchtest beben (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 5).

Note. Vermögen differing from mögen requires zu: Die betrübte Stadt vermag sich nicht zu trösten. Earlier in the period the zu could be omitted: Denn er vermag euch nicht erretten von meiner Hand (2 Kings xviii. 29).

b. After lassen to cause (to be done), have (something done), lead to, let, allow: Ich lasse ein Haus bauen I am having a house built. Ihr Benehmen läßt mich glauben, daß ich ihr nicht gleichgültig bin Her conduct leads me to think that I am something to her. Der Oberst ließ die Soldaten zwei Stunden ruhen The colonel let the men rest two hours. Er läßt sich betrügen He allows himself to be deceived.

c. After bedeuten to mean, blasen (see ex.) to command by means of the bugle, heißen to bid, direct, tell (order), command, call, helfen to help, lehren to teach, lernen (but *verlernen to unlearn* with zu) to learn, nennen to call, name, and sometimes vergessen (usually with zu) to forget: Die Wahrheit zu sagen, hätte ihm nichts anderes bedeutet, als Vermutung austräumen, mit einem eitlen Argwohn ein zutraulich Mädchenherz vergiften und seinen besten Freund verleumden (Hans Hopfen's *Der Stellvertreter*, IV). Ich wende mich zu meinem Hornisten: „Weber! Avancieren blasen!“ (Liliencron's *Kriegsnovellen*, Anno 1870, Unter flatternden

Fahnen). Er hat ihn schweigen heißen. Man hieß mich kommen I was directed to come. Wer hat Sie denn rauchen heißen? Who told you to smoke? or What business had you to smoke? Er lehrte mich lesen. Das nenne ich schlafen That is what I call a good sleep. Vergiß nur nicht, der Adelheidchen guten Tag sagen, Kind (Schulze-Smidt's *Denk' ich an Deutschland in der Nacht*, II).

Note. After *lehren* and *lernen*, and sometimes after *helfen* and *heißen*, *zu* may stand before the dependent infin., especially if the infinitive is modified by a clause or a number of words: Ich hatte wieder zu lachen gelernt (Jensen's *Heimkunft*, II, 3). Ich will dir helfen zu lernen, daß es weder vornehm noch moralisch ist, mehr Geld auszugeben als man hat. The *zu* stands regularly after the passive here; see 178. 2. B. d. In German the passive is in general little used in connection with an infinitive, except as described in 178. 2. B. d. Hence *He was directed to go* is usually translated by *Man hieß ihn gehen*. After the active or passive form of *to tell* (= *to order*) the infinitive with *to* may be employed in English, while in German the infinitive clause is replaced by a subordinate clause with a finite verb: *I told him* or *He was told to go* Ich sagte ihm or Ihm wurde gesagt, daß er gehen müsse.

d. After the following: verbs of perceiving and knowing, *ahnen* to forbode, *sich denken* to imagine to one's self, *sich dünken* to seem, *finden* (more commonly with pres. participle) to find, *fühlen* (and likewise *spüren* and *empfinden*) to feel, *glauben* to believe, *hören* (and likewise *vernehmen*) to hear, *sehen* (and likewise *bemerken*, *merken*, *erblicken*, *gewahren*, and *schauen*) to see, *wähnen* to believe, fancy, imagine, *wissen to know*, but with *zu* in the sense *to be able to*, *know how to*; also after *führen* to lead, *haben* to have, *machen* to make, *tragen* to carry, *wiegen* to rock, *zeigen* to show: Man denke sich (dat.) diese Herren in diesen Felsen haufen (Gregorovius's *Korsika*, I, 14). Ich dünkte mich durch die Luft schweben (or perhaps more commonly *schwebend*) or *zu schweben*. Also the dat. with *dünken*: Ich an Gretchens Seite deuchte mir wirklich in jenen glücklichen Gefilden Elysiums zu wandeln (Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, I, 5). Da fand ich sie eines Morgens mit kaum noch umflorten Augen auf ihren Kissen liegen (Franzos's *Der Gott des alten Doktors*, p. 99). Er saß noch lange, bis der Mond schon unter war und er alles schlafen glaubte (Storm's *Ein Doppelgänger*, p. 213). Er spürte seine Augen feucht werden (Maria Janitschek's *Einer Mutter Sieg*, VII). Der unten Stehende gewahrte nun endlich auch den Jungen wie eine große schwarze Raupe um den Baum herumhängen (Storm's *Wann die Äpfel reif sind*). Ich sehe sie tanzen I see her dancing. Wo er sich wiederum nach den Brunnen ... tappen wählte (*Volks-Zeitung*, 26. 195. A). Wenn ich euch da sitzen und frieren weiß (P. Heyse's *Nov.*, 150) *When I know that you are sitting there freezing*, but Er weiß solche Schwierigkeiten geschickt zu lösen *He knows how to solve such difficulties adroitly*. Er führte ihn am Arme spazieren He took him out walking, holding him by the arm. Er hat das Geld im Kasten liegen. Das machte mich laut auflachen. „Wo warst du denn?“ „Meine Sorgen etwas spazieren tragen“ (Maria Janitschek's *Einer Mutter Sieg*, IX). Hab' ich doch schon manchmal ein großes Kind damit schlafen gewiegt (Goethe's *Egmont*, Act 3). Man zeigte uns das Schloß Chanvan blinken (id.). For other examples see 262. III. 2. C.

We sometimes find the infinitive with *zu* after *haben* and *machen* in accordance with the general trend from the simple to the prepositional infinitive: Das macht mich zu lachen (Goethe). Er hat das Geld im Kasten zu liegen. The infinitive with *zu* is no longer thus

found in the literary language after *machen*, and after *haben* it has never been used here, although it is common in dialect. In connection, however, with a dat. of the person interested, *machen* usually requires *zu* before the dependent infinitive according to A. I. 6: *Das macht mir zu schaffen* that gives me a good deal of work, keeps me busy. Also *haben* may be similarly used with *zu*; see (2) below.

(1) The infinitive after the verbs in the above list is in many cases the mutilated form of the present participle, which once stood here, and which is still in case of *machen* preferred in certain expressions, and in case of *sehen* and *erblicken* is still occasionally used, and in case of *bünnen*, *finden*, *glauben*, *wähnen*, and *zeigen* is used quite freely: *Das macht ihn rasend*. *Er macht sein Recht an die Krone geltend* (formerly also *gelten*, as in Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, II, 7) He urges the validity of his claims upon the throne. *Der hat zu Protokoll gegeben, daß er das Mädchen im Mondschein von ihres Vaters Dach kletternd und im Walde laufend gesehen habe* (Raabe's *Frau Salome*, chap. x). Dann erblickte er von Zeit zu Zeit ihren Arm einen Teller zurecht schiebend (Ompeda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XX). Sie standen auf der Landstraße, wo der Doktor seinen Einspänner bereits wartend fand (Raabe's *Zum wilden Mann*, chap. x). Eine Frau . . . die den Fehdehandschuh, welchen ihr das heutige Leben jeden Tag vor die Füße wirft, jedes Mal wieder aufnimmt, und — das Bessere immer drei Häuser oder drei Gassen weiterab liegend wähnt (id., *Der Lar*, p. 9). Vor jenem Bildchen . . . das Hubins im Garten mit seiner schönen jungen Frau an einem Tulpenbeet vorbeispazierend zeigt (P. Heyse's *Im Paradiese*, I, chap. v). Sometimes after *wissen*: *Er ging selig um das Haus herum, in dem er sie tanzend wußte* (Ludwig's *Zwischen Himmel und Erde*, II).

In English there is a distinct shade of meaning between the participle and infinitive here. Compare *I saw him COMING up the road* and *I saw him COME*. The participle has descriptive force, while the infinitive calls attention to a completed action or a statement of fact. In German no such distinction is regularly made between infinitive and participle, for in some cases the participle is rarely used or not employed at all. In some cases, however, this distinction seems to be observed: Kaiser Otto III. fand den ersten deutschen Kaiser auf einem steinernen Stuhl sitzend, die Krone auf dem Haupt, den Reichsapfel in der Hand (Moltke). Im Kriege finden wir den König Osyr vollziehen (Ranke). In earlier periods the infinitive and participle were both found with a number of these verbs. As a fixed differentiation did not develop, and the participle in careless pronunciation lost its final *b* and thus became identical in form with the infinitive, the latter construction in most cases became established and the possibility of making a beautiful shade of meaning was lost.

(2) *Haben* is used in a number of idiomatic expressions, of which some require no *zu* before the infin., while others require it: *Er hat gut reden* (construed as a substantive in the acc.) It is easy for him to talk. *Er hat zu reden* (gerundive) He has to make a speech. *Er hat hier nichts zu befehlen* He has no right to give commands here. *Er hat mit mir zu tun* He has to do with me. See A. I. 6.

(3) This use of the infinitive after *wissen* should not be confounded with the case where an infin. in an elliptical clause apparently follows *wissen*, but in reality is dependent upon a modal auxiliary understood: *Sie wußte nicht, was [sie] aus der Sache machen [sollte]* She did not know what to make out of the affair.

(4) In English the simple infinitive is used after a number of these verbs in the active, while the infinitive with *to* is employed after the passive: *I heard him say, I made him come*; but *He was heard to say, He was made to come*. The passive construction is not used here at all in the German.

e. After *tun*: (1) In the common expression *nichts tun*: *Er tut*

nichts als klagen He does nothing but complain. (2) For emphasis, when instead of the simple finite verb the infinitive of the desired verb is used dependent upon *tun*. Emphatic words are usually placed at the head of the clause or sentence, but a finite form of the verb rarely. If the verb is to be made emphatic, the infinitive, which alone contains the verbal *meaning* and hence the important part of the verb, now usually introduces the clause and is then followed by a finite form of the auxiliary *tun*, which merely marks the verbal *function*: Loben tat sie nicht viel, sie hielt's vom Überfluß She rarely praised anybody, as she thought it superfluous. *Tun tue ich jetzt sehr wenig, nur denken und empfinden* I am *acting* now very little, only *thinking* and *feeling*. Kutscher will ich wohl sein und auf dem Boche sitzen, aber selbst ziehen, das tue ich nicht To be sure I like to be coachman and sit upon the box, but I will not myself help to draw the coach.

In dialect, also in the language of children and clumsy speakers in general, *tun* is often used with a dependent infinitive which is not restricted to the first place in the proposition. This construction differs from the emphatic form described above in that it is a mere periphrasis for the simple verb: Er tat mich kennen, obwohl ich ihn nicht kennen tat = Er kannte mich, obwohl ich ihn nicht kannte. Da taten sie sich trennen = Da trennten sie sich. For irregular past tense in this construction see 210. a. In older English the *do*-form was thus used promiscuously with the simple form of the verb without a difference of meaning, but later a differentiation took place, so that the *do*-form has become fixed in the emphatic, negative, and interrogative form of statement: It *does* matter. It doesn't matter. It *doesn't* matter. Does it matter? *Does* it matter? Doesn't it matter? *Doesn't* it matter? Notice that in English the *do*-form is always accented when the statement is emphatic, while in German the infinitive receives the stress and stands at the beginning of the proposition. The German emphatic form does not correspond closely to the English, for it is only used to emphasize the simple verb, not to emphasize the statement. (3) In dialect the past subjunctive of *tun* is used instead of *würde* to form the conditional; see 190. i. E. b.

Note. *Zu* stands with *tun* in the idiom *zu wissen tun* to announce, acquaint with, let somebody know, make known. Compare *we do you to wit* (2 Cor. viii. 1).

3. The infinitive without *zu* is used when it is employed to repeat an idea contained in a finite verb which has already been used, no matter what its construction in the sentence may be: „*Lehne dich an meine Brust und schlafe.*“ Der Gläser ermannte sich wieder: „*Schlafen! dazu wird keine Zeit mehr sein!*“ (Rosegger).

4. The simple infinitive is often used in questions introduced by some interrogative word, where the infinitive in fact depends upon some auxiliary understood: *Ja, was da tun, Engelse?* (Fontane's *Stechlin*, chap. i) What in the world shall I do, Engelke? Sometimes the infinitive with *zu* is used: *Was nun zu tun?* (Grillparzer's *Argonauten*, 2). As the original construction has become indistinct, the simple infinitive is now used very freely, and in excited or

vivid language without precise grammatical relations often becomes the bearer of the thought: Aber wie Klarheit darüber gewinnen? Ihr schreiben? Wie den Brief in ihre Hände spielen? Und dann — qualvoll harren, bis die Antwort käme, vielleicht vergeblich harren! (Franz's *Der Gott des alten Doktors*, p. 135). Mein ganzes Wesen bäumt sich gegen die abhässliche Praxis auf, die in meinem Elternhause herrscht. — Bezahlen — immer bezahlen — Ehre, Recht, Liebe, — alles bezahlen! (Sudermann's *Die Ehre*, 4, 4).

5. The accusative with the infinitive, as in Latin, was common earlier in the period, and still occurs in the classics of the eighteenth century, but it has since disappeared. It is found after such verbs as achten, denken, glauben, kennen, sagen, &c., more commonly without zu earlier in the period, and later with zu: ich achte es billig sein (2 Pet. i. 13), but in revised editions ich achte es billig zu sein. Hier ruhet Martin Faulemann, wenn man den ruhen sagen kann, der seinen Lebttag nichts getan (Weckherlin). In Lessing it is especially common in relative clauses: Dieser Aischines, den er ein so elendes Leben zu führen glaubt. The infinitive is now replaced by some other construction, especially a subordinate clause: Dieser Aischines, der, wie er glaubt, ein so elendes Leben führt.

II. In the different constructions described in I, above, the infinitive stands uniformly only when it has present force. In case its force would be past,—

a. It assumes the form of the perf. infin. after the modal auxiliaries and the auxiliary werden: Er will es gesehen haben He pretends to have seen it. Er wird jetzt wohl geschrieben haben He has probably written by this time.

Note. The perf. infin. depending upon these modal auxiliaries should not be confounded with another construction having exactly the same form, but a quite different meaning—namely, haben in the infinitive depending upon a modal auxiliary, and having on the other hand a perf. part. with passive force depending upon itself: Ich wollte alles historisch erklärt haben I wanted to have everything explained from a historical standpoint. More frequent and forcible than haben is wissen: Numa wollte keine Gottheit in menschlicher oder tierischer Gestalt vorgestellt wissen Numa did not want to have any god represented in the form of man or beast. Also sehen is thus used: Er wollte diese Frage mit heiterer Gelassenheit behandelt sehen He wanted to have this question discussed with cheerful composure. This construction with haben (also wissen and sehen) falls regularly under b, and is only given here to prevent its being confounded with the construction in a, above.

b. Except often in the subject relation (see I. a, above, under I), it assumes the form of the perf. part. in all the other constructions in I, even after the verbs marked rare, and also after erscheinen to appear and scheinen to seem: Unversucht (subject) schmeckt nicht You cannot tell how it tastes without first having tried it. Selbsterfahren (subject) ist das sicherste Personal experience is the surest way. Aufgehoben (subject) ist nicht aufgehoben (predicate) Having deferred a matter is not the same as having given up the idea altogether. Die Schlacht ist verloren (predicate) gegangen The battle has been lost. Er kam mit dem Messer in der Hand herzugelaufen (predicate appositive). He came running up with the knife in his hand. Nach einiger Zeit kam auch eine Ziege neugierig in die Stube geguckt (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, XIV). Egmont kam mit einigen auf den Markt geritten. Seulend kam der Sturm geslogen. In the five preceding sentences gehen and kommen have perfective force, i. e. the attention is called, not to an activity in its entirety, but to its close, and hence the perfect

participle is used, for the action which it indicates is also completed. The following sentence from Uhland seems to be constructed after the analogy of the preceding models, but the parallelism in the thought is not perfect: Dann geht's durch Tannenwälder ins grüne Tal gesprengt. Das heißt schlecht geworfen (predicate) That was a bad throw. Das heißt gelogen (predicate) That was what people call lying. Das heißt recht den Nagel auf den Kopf getroffen (predicate). Das ist leicht gesagt (predicate), aber schwer getan (predicate) That is easily said, but difficult to do. Dies ist natürlich zu weit gegangen (predicate) *This is of course going too far*, or to bring out the force of the perf. part. *Here of course he went too far*. Das war denn aber doch wohl etwas zu viel verlangt (predicate) But that was surely asking a little too much. Ein Wort macht alles ungeschähen (objective pred.) One word will smooth over the unpleasant feeling (bring it about that all will be as if the unpleasantness had not happened). Das heiße ich geschlafen (objective pred.) That was what I call a good sleep. Er fühlte sich gekränkt He felt hurt about it. Ich will ihn bestraft sehen I want to see him punished. Er scheint unentschlossen. Die Leute erscheinen mir jetzt alle liebenswürdiger geworden (Meinhardt).

Note. The perf. part. here is in some cases, as after the verbs in I. 2. d., the original construction, while in other cases it is an elliptical perf. infin.: Seine Mutter scheint früh gestorben [zu sein].

186. When two infinitives connected by *als* depend upon one of the verbs mentioned above as not requiring *zu* with the dependent infinitive, they both are usually without the *zu*, but not infrequently the second infinitive takes *zu* contrary to rule: Mit der Welt muß niemand leben, *als* wer sie brauchen will; *ist* er brauchbar und still, *so*llt' er sich lieber dem Teufel ergeben, *als* zu tun, was sie will (Goethe). Compare: I had rather *be* a doorkeeper in the house of my God, than *to dwell* in the tents of wickedness (Psalm lxxxiv. 10). When two infinitives used as subjects are in the same manner connected by *als*, they usually both take *zu* or both are without it, but often contrary to rule the one takes *zu* while the other is without it: Aber Brücken abzubrechen, *ist* leichter *als* aufbauen (Boy-Ed). The first infinitive may be without the *zu* while the second one takes it.

187. The active infin. often assumes passive meaning in the following constructions:

1. After heißen, hören, lassen, sehen, and less commonly fühlen: Wir sehen den Stein emporwinden We see the stone being drawn up. Er ließ den Arzt holen We had the doctor sent for. Wir mußten die Tür vom Schlosser öffnen lassen We had to have the door opened by a locksmith. Ich lasse mir von dir nichts befehlen. We occasionally find the passive form instead of the active: Und da sitzt du nun und stehst ihn von dem braven germanistischen Binsel von Vater und der lächerlichen Here seiner Mutter immer mehr verzogen werden (Raabe's *Der Lar*, p. 158).

a. Sometimes it is doubtful whether this infin. is active or passive: Ich hörte ihn rufen means *I heard him calling*, or *heard him called by some one*.

b. Formerly also machen belonged to this list: Man tat alles, um sich von dem König bemerken zu machen (Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, II, 7).

2. After certain other verbs; see 180. A. a, b, c.

THE INFINITIVE-SUBSTANTIVE.

188. Different from the preceding infinitives, which can be used substantively either as subject or object, is the abstract neuter infinitive-substantive, which may take an article or other adj. modifiers before it and is declined as any noun in *-en*, and is written with a capital letter: Das unaufhörliche Weinen des Kindes the constant weeping of the child. Ich bin des Treibens müde. Der Erben Weinen ist ein heimlich Lachen (proverb). Auf Lachen folgt Weinen. Mit Warten wird nichts erreicht. It is the presence of the article (or other modifying adj.) that distinguishes this substantive from the verbal infin. used as subject or object, and when these modifying words do not stand before the substantive it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between them: Er lernt schreiben. Er lernt nicht nur Schreiben und Lesen, sondern auch Geographie und Geschichte. In the first sentence, schreiben expresses *an activity*, in the second, Schreiben *a branch of study*.

a. This substantive has still verbal nature in it, since it can take an acc. object and adverbial modifiers, which, however, are usually written as one word with the substantive: Das Maßhalten the faculty of keeping in bounds; das Langsamen the slow movement. Notice that the objective and adverbial modifiers of these verbal substantives must as in case of verbal infinitives always precede. However, there is no regularity in the method of writing these compounds: das Zutage-treten (or das zu Tage treten, or das Zutagetreten) der letzten Ereignisse. See also *c*, below, and *Note* thereunder.

b. In the case of the formation of such substantives from reflexive verbs, it is necessary in some cases to use the reflexive, as in das immer tiefere Sichversenken in das Wort des Herrn The penetrating ever deeper into God's Word. In some other cases it is still usual, in accordance with older usage, to drop the reflexive: das Befinden health, das Betragen conduct, das Besinnen reflecting. Da war ein Freuen, wenn er wieder kam. Doch was geschah auf der ersten „Reunion,“ die ich besuchte? Ein großes, sterbliches Verlieben (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!* I, p. 10).

c. It is not always necessary for the *object* to be compounded with the substantive, for it can often be placed after the substantive as a dependent objective genitive, and thus in this respect the infinitive-substantive differs from the verbal infin., as the latter requires its object to precede in the acc. (in the dat. or gen. of course, if the finite verb would require it): Das Essen unreifer Früchte ist ungesund, but Unreife Früchte zu essen ist ungesund.

Note. Sometimes in early N.H.G., as quite commonly in earlier periods, the infinitive-substantive could, like the verbal infinitive, take an object in the acc.: Wollen habe ich wol | Aber vollbringen das gute (now Vollbringen des Guten) finde ich nicht (Rom. vii. 18). The object in this construction partakes of the nature of the object of a verbal noun and also that of a verb. It stands *after* the infinitive-substantive just as the object of a verbal noun, and it is in the acc. just as the object of a verb. Thus the infinitive-substantive in this construction shows more substantive nature than the one described in *a*. The object of the infinitive-substantive is now usually in the gen., which shows that the infin. is now felt as a true noun.

189. The infinitive-substantive, which has much the same force as verbal nouns in English (as, *To read* is profitable, or *Reading* is profitable), has an abstract meaning bordering upon the abstract verbal nouns ending in *-ung* and those formed from the past tense of strong verbs. The relation of this infinitive-substantive to the other verbal nouns is that the former is more abstract and hence cannot usually take a plural, while more of the concrete enters into the latter, as can be seen from the following instructive sentence: *Das Unterscheiden ist nicht leicht, denn der Unterschied zwischen zwei Dingen ist oft so versteckt, daß die Unterscheidung des einen von dem andern kaum möglich ist.* This close distinction cannot always be detected so clearly as in the preceding sentence, and hence they are often confounded, and we find the infinitive-substantive instead of one of the other more correct verbal nouns, especially as the infin. is a favorite construction: *das Aufgehen der Sonne* instead of *der Aufgang der Sonne* the rise of the sun; *das Anfertigen des Sarges* instead of *die Anfertigung des Sarges* the making of the coffin.

FORMATION OF COMPOUND TENSES.

190. I. A. The *present perfect*, indicative and subjunctive, of transitive and most intransitive verbs is formed with the present indic. or subj. of *haben* and the perfect participle of the verb to be conjugated, but some intransitives (see 191) form this tense with the present of *sein* and the perfect participle: (indic.) *ich habe gelobt*, but *ich bin gefallen*; (subj.) *ich habe gelobt*, but *ich sei gefallen*.

The imperative in this tense has only two persons, the second and third. The second person is formed with the present imperative of *haben* or *sein* and the perfect participle, and the third person with the present subjunctive of *haben* or *sein* and the perfect participle: *Habe nie umsonst gelebt!* (Gutzkow). *In die Ecke, Wejen! Wejen! Seid's gewesen!* (Goethe's *Zauberlehrling*) Into the corner with you, brooms! May you soon have ceased to be water-carriers! *In's Grab! Die Schaufeln her! Er sei gewesen* (Kleist's *Kälhchen*, 2, 8) Into the grave with him! Bring on the shovels! May he soon have ceased to be!

a. Another form of the pres. perf. indic. and subj. is now common even in good authors, however, with a shade of difference in meaning. To the regular pres. perf. form, *gehabt* is often added if the verb is trans., or *gewesen* if the verb is intrans., to indicate that a past condition or state of things is to be represented rather than a past act: *Ich habe das Buch lange verloren gehabt; nun habe ich es wieder* (D. Sanders). *Nicht auf dir laßt die Schuld, du hast dein Herz der Liebe nicht verschlossen gehabt* (Jensen's *Das Bild im Wasser*, p. 433). *Der einige Monate verreist gewesen war* (P. Heyse's *Im Paradies*, 2, 347) who had been away from town several months.

b. The auxiliaries *haben* and *sein* in this tense are frequently omitted in the subjunctive and indicative: (1) In subordinate clauses: *Man fragte, wo er gewesen [sei], was er getrieben [habe]*. Towards the close of the seventeenth century and until the middle of the eighteenth century this dropping of the auxiliary was almost the rule. It still occurs not infrequently in prose except in sentences containing a participle with the form of the infinitive, where it is now quite rare. Often: *Wenn er diesen Brief selbst geschrieben [hat], so will ich ihn anstellen,*

but Wenn er diesen Brief selbst hat schreiben können, so will ich ihn anstellen. In such sentences, however, as the last Lessing still frequently omits the auxiliary. This omission of the auxiliary is a characteristic of the literary rather than the spoken language. It is by some severely condemned. Those who favor it claim that the auxiliaries are useless grammatical forms without real meaning. This tendency to use the participle alone as the bearer of the thought is also elsewhere manifest, as described in 183. 1. G. This omission is most common in the past perfect tense in lively narrative: Aber ein weitaus größerer Ruhm als der alte Stammbaum, schien ihm die Tatsache, daß seine Ahnen, die einst zur selben Zeit, da die Habsburger arme Schweizer Dynastien **gewesen**, breit auf ihren Gütern im Traungau **gesessen** und dann dem Kaiser Rudolf die Erwerbung dieses Gaus **erleichtert**, nun seit zehn Geschlechtern, seit aller Besitz vertan war, allergetreueste Diener ihrer Herren **gewesen**, als Krieger oder Beamte (Franz's *Der Gott des alten Doktors*, p. 88). In poetry *sein* is sometimes omitted in the subordinate clause, when it is not a mere auxiliary, but is the copula: Die mir die Nächsten, haben mich verraten (Grillparzer's *König Ottokar*, 5). Occasionally in prose: Doch er trug, wie's üblich, vom Ohr zum Ohr unter dem rasierten Kinn durch einen schmalen, grauen Bartfranz (Jensen's *Heimkunft*, II, 3). (2) In principal clauses, in the crisp style of telegrams and also in familiar style: [ich habe] Eben telegraphisch die Angelegenheit gelöst (from a telegram). Nun, [hast du dich] gut amüsiert, Kindchen? Also in vivid language; see 183. 1. G.

B. The *past perf.* of trans. and most intrans. verbs is formed with the past tense of *haben* and the perf. part. of the verb to be conjugated, but some intransitives (see 191) form this tense with the past tense of *sein* and the perf. part.: (indic.) ich hatte gelobt, but ich war gefallen; (subj.) ich hätte gelobt, but ich wäre gefallen.

a. As in certain dialects the pres. perf. replaces the past (see 185. 2. b), the past perf. is replaced by a special form made by adding *gehabt* in case of transitives and *gewesen* in case of intransitives to the regular pres. perf.: Bin ich schuld, daß der Baron sich im Zimmer bei mir hat eingeschlichen (perf. for past)?! Ich hab' ihn nicht hinbestellt gehabt! (instead of hatte hinbestellt) (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 31). Dann hat sich's (= sie sich) über das Kind g'worfen (perf. for past), und hat's so lang niedergebrüht (perf. for past) in die Kissen mit ihrem ganzen Leib, bis das Dirndl (= Mädchen) erstickt ist g'wesen (instead of erstickt war) unter der Last (Telmann). For the use of this form in indirect discourse see 171. 2. B. c.

This formation is sometimes employed in the literary language in the infinitive with the force of the past perfect, although grammarians have not generally recognized a past perfect infinitive: Ludwig scheint sich entfernt zu haben *It seems that L. has withdrawn*, or L. scheint sich damals entfernt zu haben *It seems that L. withdrew at that time*, but L. scheint sich entfernt gehabt zu haben (Wustmann's *Sprachdummheiten*, p. 110, 3rd ed.) *It seems that L. had withdrawn*.

b. A past perf. form, corresponding to the pres. perf. described in A. a, above, is now common in good authors. The participles *gehabt* in case of transitives and *gewesen* in case of intransitives are added to the regular past perf. to form a past perf. with a slight difference of meaning. This past perf. differs from the regular one in that it expresses a *state* or *condition* of things instead of an *action*: Ich hatte den Brief schon geschrieben gehabt, als ich deine Anfrage bekam. There is quite a pronounced tendency in the colloquial speech of the classical period, and especially that of our own time, to direct attention in this manner to a state or condition of things, while in choice language the attention is directed to the act, and hence the usual past perfect form is used: Ich hatte den Vorfall bald wieder vergessen gehabt (H. Hoffmann). Er hätte sie (diese Entdeckung) gern vermieden gehabt (Byr) He would

gladly have prevented this discovery (would gladly have kept the matter concealed). Raum war sie genesen und hatte gelernt gehabt, wieder ein bißchen Mut zu fassen, als das große Unglück geschah (Boy-Ed). There is also a tendency to use this past perfect tense form instead of the regular one, even where the reference is clearly to an act and not to a state or condition: Das „Adieu“ hatte sie genau in dem nämlichen Ton hervorgebracht, mit dem er es damals an der Gartentür geäußert und sie drauf erwidert gehabt (Jensen's *Das Bild im Wasser*, p. 307).

c. The auxiliaries *haben* and *sein* are often dropped in subordinate clauses as in the case of the pres. perf.; see A. b. (1).

C. a. The *future*, indic. and subj., is formed with the pres. indic. and subj. of *werden* and the simple infin.: (indic.) *ich werde loben*, *ich werde fallen*; (subj.) *ich werde loben*, *ich werde fallen*.

Note 1. The infin. here seems to be a corrupted form of the pres. participle, which was used in earlier periods, as in the following sentence from the fourteenth century: *selic (selig) sint die da reines herzens sint, wan (= denn) sie werdent (werden) got (Gott) sehende*. See G.

Note 2. In M.H.G. and sometimes in early N.H.G. the future was formed by means of the auxiliaries *wollen* and *sollen*, just as in English to-day. The present German form of the future is a decided improvement, as it expresses the idea of futurity pure and simple, while *wollen* and *sollen*, and in English *will* and *shall*, contain a certain element of modality, implying in addition to the idea of futurity that of desire and authority. The use of *wollen* to express futurity still continues in the infin.; see b.

b. The fut. infin. is formed with the infin. of *wollen* and the infin. of the verb to be conjugated: *Es scheint regnen zu wollen* it seems about to rain. Gordon gab übrigens die Versicherung, es gnädig machen zu wollen (Fontane's *Cécile*, chap. vi) Gordon assured her, moreover, that he would not be too severe. Man trennte sich früh, aber doch mit der Zusicherung, am andern Tage spätestens um sieben beim Frühstück sein zu wollen (id., *Die Poggenpuhls*, chap. xiv).

D. The *future perfect*, indic. and subj., is formed with the present indic. or subj. of *werden* and the perfect infinitive: (indic.) *ich werde gelobt haben*, *ich werde gefallen sein*; (subj.) *ich werde gelobt haben*, *ich werde gefallen sein*.

E. The *present conditional* is formed with the past subj. of *werden* and the simple infinitive: *ich würde loben* I should praise, *ich würde fallen* I should fall.

a. The infinitive here is the mutilated form of the present participle; see G, below. The conditional is in fact the past subjunctive of the peculiar tense form described in G, below, consisting of the present tense of *werden* and the present participle or infinitive of the verb to be conjugated. The indicative of this past tense is lost. Before it disappeared it had become a mere periphrasis for the usual simple past tense, having lost its original meaning: *Meiss aber ward zittern (= zitterte)*—Acts vii. 32. *Da wart ich zu dem Alten gehen (= Da sagte ich zu dem Alten)*—H. Sachs. The surviving past subj. of this formation is thus a periphrasis for the simple past subj. Grammarians would limit its use to the principal proposition of conditional sentences and to indirect discourse, but in accordance with its origin it is used more widely even by good authors as a periphrasis for the simple subjunctive, as described in 169. 1. A. a; 169. 1. B. a; 169. 2. B. a; 169. 2. C. b, and E. Note 3. On account of the lack of clear subjunctive forms and the general dislike for the simple forms of this mood this usage is spreading. The best usage, however, instead of thus using interchangeably the conditional and the simple subjunctive, inclines to differentiate them, so that the

former expresses future time and the latter present time, or in subordinate clauses the same time as that of the principal verb: Wie sie laufen, als ob sie aus Zucker wären (present time) und die schweren, frischen Regentropfen an ihnen lecken und auflösen würden (future time)! (H. Böhlau's *Adam und Eva*, chap. i.) Es hatte den Anschein, als würde (*would*) sich die Spekulation mehr der Peripherie der Stadt zuwenden (future), but Es hatte den Anschein, als wendete (*were turning*) sich die Spekulation mehr der Peripherie der Stadt zu (contemporaneity).

b. In dialect, especially S.G. dialect, the conditional is often formed with *tät* (past subj. of *tun*), both in the active and passive in principal and subordinate propositions: Blichest auch du daheim, Natzl, morgen tät's dir gewiß nicht leid sein (Rosegger) If you, Natzl, also would remain at home, it would certainly be better for you to-morrow. „Und der sieben Schwerter wegen wollte ich noch sagen,“ meinte das Grauhaupt, „wenn sie halt täten vergolbet werden“ (id.) 'As to the seven swords, I also wanted to say,' remarked the old man, 'it would be better if they should be gilded.'

F. The perfect conditional is formed with the past subj. of *werden* and the perfect infinitive: ich würde gelobt haben, ich würde gefallen sein.

G. In early N.H.G. compound tense forms consisting of the present or past tense of *werden* in connection with the pres. part. of the verb were used to indicate the commencement of an action in the present or past: Er wird laufend He is beginning to run. Er ward laufend He began to run. In the same way the present and past tense of *sein* were used with the present participle to indicate the continuance of an action, just as the *progressive form* of the verb in English: Es waren aber Juden zu Jerusalem wohnend (Acts ii. 5). The present participle in these constructions often goes over into the infinitive form: Er ward laufen, er war wohnen. This change of form was rendered easy and natural on one hand by the fact that the present participle had in careless speech become identical with the infinitive in form, on the other hand by the analogy of other similar constructions which require an infinitive after auxiliary verbs. The participial and infinitive forms in connection with *sein* have lingered on even up to our own day in the case of the verb *vermuten*: Ich war mir Sie in dem Vorzimmer nicht vermutend (Lessing's *Emilia Galotti*, 2, 7). Was gilt's, das warst du nicht vermuten (id., *Nathan*, 2, 1). So etwas war ich vermuten (Müllner's *Die Schuld*, 4, 1). Es gibt viele Redensarten für die Betäubung, die den Menschen überkommt, wenn ihm etwas begegnet, dessen er sich durchaus nicht vermutend war (Raabe's *Hastenbeck*, chap. xiii). The construction of *werden* with the infinitive has become obsolete except in two very common cases, where it has taken on a slightly different meaning, serving as the regular tense form of the future (see C. a. Note 1, above) and the conditional (see E. a). In some dialects, however, as in Austria, the present participle survives here with its original force: So oft die Ned' auf'n Gelbhofbauer kommt, wird bei ihm's Nadel laufend und da haspelt er die ganze alte Geschichte' aber (Anzengruber's *Kreuzelschreiber*, 1, 1).

The construction of *sein* with pres. part. may be surviving in a few colloquial expressions: Er ist fischen He is a-fishing. Er wird wohl fischen sein, meinte er (Kinkel). Ich habe Sie überall gesucht: es hieß, Sie seien spazieren (Sophie Junghans in *Zwei Brüder*, vol. I. p. 80). Er

ist mit seiner Mama spazieren gewesen (Wildenbruch's *Die Allen und die Jungen*, p. 55). Ist nit daham d' Bäurin? Answer: Na, sie is beichten (Anzengruber's *Kreuzelschreiber*, 2, 1). As these forms are construed as infinitives *zu* is also found before them: Biß *zu* ruhen (= sei ruhend, ruhig) (Wickram's *Rollwagenbüchlein*, 103, 3). Und als er wieder *zu* fischen war, | da ließ ich einen Schatz ihn finden (Schiller's *Macbeth*, 1, 4). The *zu* in these forms has disappeared.

The present participle is still often found in connection with both *werden* and *sein*, but it now has here only the force of an adj.: Er ist vermögend He is rich. Gebt jeden Zweifel auf, Euer Mann ist sterbend (in a dying condition) (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Maßlans Frau*). Ihre Stimme ist ersterbend, verhauchend (Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*, Act 5).

2. These compound tenses are often abbreviated by suppressing the non-personal part, i. e. participle and infinitive, when the suppressed words can easily be supplied from the context. This abbreviation may assume two forms:

a. The personal part of the verb, i. e. the auxiliary, may alone remain, accompanied by one of the pronouns *daß*, *es*, *was*, which represent the suppressed non-personal part of the preceding verb with all its modifiers, and thus stand for the whole thought expressed in the preceding sentence: Du würdest sie ja nicht gezwungen haben? Nein, *daß* hätte ich nicht, or Nein, *daß* würde ich nicht You, certainly, would not have forced her, would you? No, I would not. Sie hat gebüßt, wahrlich sie hat *es* She has atoned for it, indeed, she has. Er hat studiert, *was* ich nicht habe.

b. The personal part of the verb may alone remain, unaccompanied by a pronoun, the suppressed words easily being supplied from the context. Hättest du ihn nehmen mögen, Selma? Gewiß hätt' ich [ihn nehmen mögen] Would you have wanted to accept him, Selma? Certainly, I would. Wart! euch werd' ich [furanzen] Just wait, boys! I'll give you a good sound thrashing. Ich weiß, *was* ich [tun] werde! Ich öffne die Tür und wecke sie. Otto: Wir hätten Straußberg auch ohne ihn bekommen! Barbara: Warum habt Ihr nicht? (Wildenbruch's *Die Quitzows*, 2, 4).

THE USE OF *haben* AND *sein*.

191. The use of *haben* and *sein* as auxiliaries of tense presents peculiar difficulties to the English-speaking student, as the German has two auxiliaries for the one *to have* in English.

The following distinctions between the use of *haben* and *sein* are to be observed:

I. *Haben* is used with transitives: Ich habe den Brief geschrieben I have written the letter, lit. I have the letter in a written condition.

Durative intransitives, i. e. such as represent an act as continuing, form their compound tenses after the manner of transitives with *haben*: Ich habe gearbeitet, sie hat gesungen, wir haben gelacht. Es hat geregnet.

On the other hand, intransitives which do not represent an act

as continuing, but indicate the final point—perfectives—or the beginning of an act—inchoatives—are conjugated with *sein*. The full treatment of perfectives and inchoatives is given in II, below. The boundary lines of usage between *haben* and *sein* are not at every place clearly drawn. Earlier in the period *haben* was more widely used than to-day, as can be seen in II. B. c; C. 1. a and 2. a; D, E, below. It has, however, made small gains in the one group described in II. A. *Note*. In English the development has been in the opposite direction, for *to be* has been entirely replaced here by *to have*, except in certain cases where *to be* may still be used to express the idea of a *state* or *result*: The melancholy days are come (Bryant). When he awoke, the boys of the village were gathered round him.

Note. The transitives *ansprechen* to speak harshly to, rebuke, *angehen* to ask, solicit, concern, *anrufen* to touch (call) at (a port), *anwandeln* to come over, *durchfahren* to drive through, *durchgehen* to go through or over, *durchlaufen* to run through or over, *durchwandern* to walk through, *durchziehen* to travel through, *eingehen* to enter into (a contract, &c.), *passieren* to pass (as a verb of motion), *überkommen* to come over, seize, are not only conjugated with *haben*, but also not infrequently with *sein*, as the force of the simple verb, which is primarily an intransitive conjugated with *sein*, asserts itself: *Bin ich ihn angefahren*: Was er da beim Herd zu tun hätte? (Rosegger's *Martin der Mann*, p. 76). *Daß er dort oben auf dem Berge auch dem Blumenmaler Feld Wille einen Platz im Malersaal gab, hätte er nur verantworten können, wenn er vorher die Pastorin von Boffen um ihre Meinung und ihren Rat angegangen wäre* (Raabe's *Hastenbeck*, chap. iv). *Sie hatten schon immer allerhand im Halbschlaf gehört: Türen werfen, die laute Donnerstimme des Vaters; aber es war sie nichts angegangen* (concerned) (H. Böhlau's *Adam und Eva*, chap. ii). *Das ganze Dorf war ich schon durchwandert von einem Ende zum andern* (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, IV). *Ich bin die Mark [Brandenburg] durchzogen und habe sie reicher gefunden, als ich zu hoffen gewagt hatte* (Fontane's *Wanderungen*, i, Preface). *Der Bischof Bedefind bereute nicht selten gar sehr den Handel, welchen er mit dem Abt Heinrich zu Fulda eingegangen war* (Raabe's *Die Hämelschen Kinder*, chap. iii). *Hannover (ship) ist gestern Kap Henry passiert* (*Hamburgischer Correspondent*, 30. Mai, 1901; five times with *sein* on one page). *Das instintive Gefühl einer unabwendbaren über Nacht hereinbrechenden Gefahr, das ihn an jenem Tage zum ersten Male überkommen war, als er von Urbans Plänen erfuhr* (M. Kretzer's *Meister Timpe*, chap. ix). *Sie wußte selbst nicht, was sie überkommen war* (Storm's *Zur Wald- und Wasserfreude*, p. 188).

Ankommen to seize, come (hard, easy, &c.) for (one), and verbs of motion, as *gehen*, *kommen*, *laufen*, *reiten*, in composition with *vorüber* or *vorbei* (see also 259. 36), are usually conjugated with *sein*, as the force of the simple verb asserts itself: *Denn es war in ein schrecken ankommen* (Luke v. 9). *Sauer ist's mich genug angekommen* (Anzengruber's *Schandfleck*, chap. vii). *Kein Geschöpf bist du vorbeigegangen* (Herder). *Wir sind kein Wirtshaus vorübergegangen, ohne einzufehren* (Blatz).

The transitives *einschlagen* to take (a way, road), *übergehen* to pass over, *umfahren* to drive around, *umgehen* to walk around, are occasionally found with *sein* earlier in the period, but are now usually conjugated with *haben*.

Verbs that take a cognate accusative (see 257. 2. A) are not real transitives, and hence usually take *sein* where the simple verb is conjugated with *sein*: *Ich bin so lange Eisenbahn gefahren, daß mich alle Kondukteure kannten*. *Haben* is sometimes used here to give expression to the durative idea: *Ich hätte* (perhaps under the influence of *J'ai couru le risque*) *Gefahr gelaufen, mich zu verschuppen* (Lessing). Die Soldaten haben zweimal Sturm gelaufen wider die Mauer (Sanders' *Wörterbuch*). Present usage, however, inclines also here toward *sein* in accordance with the general trend of intransitives toward *sein*: *Ich bin (habe) große Gefahr gelaufen* (Blatz). In many other cases the acc. is an adverbial acc. and the verb is to be regarded as intransitive: *Ich bin diesen Weg noch nie geritten*. *Er ist die Zimmer alle durchgegangen*.

II. Sein is only used with intransitives:

1. When the subject is thought of, not as acting, but as resting

in a state or condition produced by the action, or as reposing at some goal or destination that has been reached by means of the activity indicated in the verb. Examples in B and C.

2. As the resultant condition and the attained goal are not only the outcome of an activity but also often the commencement of something new, *sein* often has inchoative force and points to the beginning of a state or activity: *Sein Herz ist zu ihr in Liebe entbrannt* His heart has become inflamed with love for her. *Er ist abgereist* He has started on a journey. Other examples are given in A, B, and C, below. In the category explained in A and *Note* thereunder South Germans prefer *sein* to *haben* in order that they may give expression to the inchoative idea.

3. *Sein* is often used with certain verbs of motion pure and simple without mention of a goal or destination, for the reason that, being so often used with these words when a destination is expressed, it has become associated with them and remains even when there is no reference to a goal. Examples are given in C. 2. a and b, and D.

These are the general principles which may serve as a general guide. The detailed treatment follows:

Sein is used as an auxiliary of tense:

A. With two verbs of rest, *sein* *to be* and *bleiben* *to remain*: *Das Geld ist in der Familie geblieben.*

Note. The list was once larger. In early N.H.G., in the classical period and even later, *beharren* *to insist upon*, *beruhen* *to rest upon*, *bestehen* *to insist upon*, *hangen* *to hang*, *liegen* *to lie*, *sitzen* *to sit*, *stecken* *to stick* (intrans.), *remain*, *schweben* *to hover*, *stehen* *to stand*, are still found with *sein*, more frequently earlier in the period, and later gradually disappearing in the language of the North: *Wie oft bin ich nicht darauf bestanden?* (Lessing's *Freigeist*, I, 1). *So sind wir alle in dem Unflat gesteckt* (Luther). *Wenn ich so bei ihr gegessen bin* (Goethe). *Wenn ihr nicht Louis Armand im Sinn gelegen wäre* (Gutzkow). Occasionally in our own time as a survival of this older usage, even in the North: *Während der Jüngere Liebling des Infermiers gewesen und auch noch nach den Lehrstunden in ihrer Kammer über den Büchern gegessen ist, hat der Ältere alsbald den Bauern und Knechten draußen bei der Arbeit zugegesehen* (Storm's *Zur Chronik von Grieshuus*, p. 92). *Aber das Haus selbst war am Nachmittage, als ich dort vorbeigegangen, in seiner gewohnten wunderlichen Einsamkeit dagestanden* (id., *John Riew*). Thus in general the point of view has shifted somewhat within the present period. Luther in the sentence given above emphasized the beginning of the act, the getting into the filth, while the North and Middle Germans of our time call attention to the continuation in the resultant condition or assumed position, and hence use *haben*. The literary language of the South still preserves the older usage: *Der junge Priester war auf der Entfernung der Bilder beharrt* (Marriot's *Der geistliche Tod*, chap. iv). *Du weißt, daß ich von jeher einem idealen Zuge nachgehangen bin* (G. Keller). *Viele Monate war er im Spital gelegen* (Rosegger). *Ich finde dich anders, als du mir in der Erinnerung vorgeschwebt bist* (Marriot's *Seine Gottheit*, chap. xxviii). *Ich bin nicht immer im Leben gesteckt, wie der Bär in seinem Fell* (Ebner-Eschenbach). *Am Kirchhof dort bin ich gestanden* (Lenau). To the above list may be added for the South: *hocken* *to sit continually in one place, pore over, frown to kneel, fester* *to stick*.

Sein is also used in the North with these verbs, if the inchoative idea becomes prominent, or if there is any idea of change of place or condition: *Das Ding ist drin im Hahn gefessen* (Storm's *Im Brauer-Hause*, p. 103) The thing got fastened in the faucet. *Als er auf den Flur zurückgekehrt war, ist er vor der Treppe still gestanden* (stopped), *als müsse er auch hier die Stiegen noch hinauf* (Storm's *Leekenhof*, p. 72). *Ein dutendmal bin ich schon auf dem Punkte gestanden, ihm die ganze Geschichte vor die Füße zu werfen und ihn seines Weges allein gehen zu lassen* (Spielhagen's *Selbstgerecht*, p. 80).

Dann sind zu den Ganten die Gänse gestanden (= Dann haben sich — begeben) und alle haben die Hälse nach mir gereckt (Raabe's *Schüdderrump*, chap. xiv). So etwas (i.e. das lange Kleid) hätte man bei uns im Busch nicht brauchen können, da wäre man bald auf der Nase gelegen (Jensen's *Heimkunft*, VI). (Er steht auf, reckt sich.) Ich bin wieder ganz steif geessen (Fulda's *Die wilde Jagd*, 3, 2) I have again become quite stiff from sitting. The inchoative idea becomes most prominent in compounds, where *sein* is quite common even in the North: Ihr ein Stüger zu sein in dem Schicksal, dem sie unterlegen war (F. Lewald). Here, however, as often elsewhere, as for instance in C. 2. b, below, the force of the simple verb asserts itself and conjugation with *haben* follows: Die Republikanische Partei hatte im Vorparlament unterlegen (Karl Biedermann's *Dreissig Jahre deutscher Geschichte*, I. p. 270). Of course *haben* should be used if the durative idea is prominent: Bei den rein preussischen Civil-diplomaten, welche der Wirkung militärischer Disziplin gar nicht oder unzureichend unterlegen hatten, habe ich in der Regel eine zu starke Neigung zur Kritik gefunden (Bismarck). In S.G. we often find *sein* in compounds even where we would naturally expect *haben*, as the force of the simple verb asserts itself: Die Buchen waren doch dem Zerbrehen widerstanden (Stifter's *Studien*, 2, 92).

It is often difficult to determine the real controlling factor in the use of *haben* and *sein*. In the following sentence from the N.G. Hebbel, it cannot be determined with absolute definiteness whether *sein* is used because the drama plays in the year 1426, or because the scene lies in the South, or because the author being in the South is influenced by his surroundings, or because older usage has survived here in the author's own northern dialect as in case of the sentences of Storm given above: Aus meinen Lippen hätt' ich gern den Verband gemacht, wenn der Vater nicht dabei gestanden wäre (*Agnes Bernauer*, I, 2).

Earlier in the period *sein* was also conjugated with *haben* in N.G. and M.G.: Darumh hett nie sein heylge so küne gewest (Luther, Weim. Ausg., I, 220).

B. With verbs which represent the subject as resting in a new state or condition as the result of a change brought about by the action of the verb. The idea of rest is contained in the auxiliary, that of action is contained in the verb, and that of change *from* or *into* may lie:

a. In some prefix of the verb such as *ent away, from*, transition into, *er out of*, into a state of, *ver* to the end of, change into, *zer* dissolution, violent separation, a breaking to pieces, a scattering, *auf up*, *ein into*, &c.: Das Mädchen ist erröthet The girl has blushed (literally, *has reddened* out). Die Rose ist erblüht The rose has come out into blossom. Die Rose ist verblüht The blooming of the rose has come to an end. Er ist gestern Abend entschlummert He passed away in death quietly last evening. Dadurch ist viel Streit entstanden Through that much strife has arisen. Er ist verarmt He has become poor. Das Seil ist zerissen The rope has broken. Hans ist aufgewacht. Hans ist eingeschlafen. Gestern abend ist einer im Fluß ertrunken.

b. In some prepositional phrase or in a predicate adjective: Der Most ist zu Essig gegoren. Der Wein ist klar gegoren. Er ist ganz blau gefroren. The meaning has such a power over the form of conjugation that some verbs which usually take *haben* are conjugated with *sein* when they indicate a change of condition: Oh, da müßte der Junge doch ganz aus der Art geschlagen sein! (Raabe's *Finkenrode*, chap. xvi).

c. In the meaning of the verb itself in the following verbs when used intransitively: altern (also with *haben*) to grow old; arten (nach) to take after, resemble, bersten to burst, bleichen (also with *haben*) to turn pale, white; brechen to break; gedeihen to thrive; gelingen to be successful, and its opposite mißlingen; genesen to recover from sickness; geraten to turn out (to be so-and-so), stray into, and missraten to fail, turn out badly, prove a failure; gerinnen to coagulate, congeal; geschehen to come to pass, happen; glücken to prosper, succeed, and its opposite mißglücken; freieren to burst, explode, die (of animals, and in coarse language also of men); passieren to happen, occur; plagen to explode; quellen to swell (of wood, &c.); reißen to break, tear; rosten (also with *haben*) to grow rusty; scheitern to be shipwrecked; schmelzen to melt; schwellen to swell up; sprießen to sprout up; sterben to die; wachsen to

grow; wessen to wither, fade away; werden to become; wurzeln (sometimes w. *haben*) to take root: Der Topf ist gebersten The pot has burst. Die Nadel ist gebrochen The needle broke. Das Schiff ist gescheitert. Die Milch ist geronnen. Es ist ihm gelungen, den Verfolgern zu entkommen He has been successful in escaping his pursuers. Die Waden sind über Nacht geschwollen. Das Holz ist von der Nässe gequollen.

Earlier in the period *haben* was used with a number of these verbs and is still found occasionally: Die arabische Religion und Nationalkultur haßte diese Blumen (der Dichtung), vielleicht hätten sie in Europa der Zeiten auch noch nicht gedeihet (now gediehen) (Herder). Es hätt' ihm auch geglückt, wenn nicht, &c. (Wieland). Wie weit ihr's gelungen hat (Schiller). Die verbergenden Klippen, an denen die stolze Vernunft schon gescheitert hat (id.). Daß diese Pflanze des nationalen Russentums nur auf Moskauer Boden zu gedeihen vermag und auch nur gediehen hat (*Gegenwart*, 1887, No. 34).

Alten and bleiben are still conjugated with *haben* when it is desired to emphasize the durative idea rather than that of a resultant state: Onkel Harre nämlich hatte in der letzten Zeit so mercklich gealtert, daß es selbst für uns, die wir ihn fast täglich sahen, auffällig war (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxi). But to call attention to a result: Obgleich sie furchtbar gealtert war (Gutzkow's *R.*, 9, 452). Ihre Seele war nicht mit gealtert (Schulze-Smidt's *Denk' ich an Deutschland in der Nacht*, II).

Note 1. In using the above words, care must be taken to distinguish between the idea of *transitive* and *intransitive*, as only the latter use requires *sein* in the compound tenses; see 257. i. b.

Note 2. The meaning has such power over the form of conjugation that some verbs which usually take *haben* are often conjugated with *sein* in those meanings which are similar to those of the verbs in the above list. This is especially true of *einschlagen* (after the analogy of *geraten*) to turn out (to be so-and-so), succeed, and *fehlgeschlagen* (after the analogy of *mißlingen*) to turn out unsuccessful: Eine politische Spekulation dem alten preussischen Frig gegenüber ist auch nicht so eingeschlagen, wie man's wünschte und verhoffte (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. xiii). Auch die Versuche selbst die lateinischen Termini (terms) zu verdeutschen sind immer wieder fehlgeschlagen (H. Wunderlich). Here as elsewhere, however, the force of the simple verb asserts itself, and hence we sometimes also find *haben*: Alle seine Hoffnungen sind oder auch haben ihm fehlgeschlagen (J. Grimm).

C. With all intransitive verbs of motion from place to place, when the subject is thought of as resting at some goal, or as starting from some point of departure or towards some end or destination.

1. The idea of rest or the beginning of the activity is in *sein*, that of action is contained in the verb, and that of a destination, arrival, departure may lie:

a. In some prefix such as *er out of*, *ent away from*, or in those denoting away, arrival, up, out of, thither, hither, into, upward, forth, towards, down, &c. (ab, an, auf, aus, hin or dahin', her or daher', ein, emper', fern, zu, wieder, &c.): Auf meine Frage ist keine Antwort erfolgt No answer has come to my question (lit. *has followed out of it*, i. e. the question). Er ist dem Gefängnis entstrichen He has escaped from prison. Bei Schmidts ist ein Töchterchen angekommen A wee daughter has arrived at Schmidt's. Er ist die Treppe hinuntergegangen. Der Blig ist herabgestammt. Er ist durch Unglücksfälle ganz heruntergekommen Misfortunes have ruined him (lit. He has come down on account of misfortunes).

Earlier in the period *haben* could also be used here: Er hat nider gesniet | und sich gelagert wie ein Lewe (Gen. xlix. 9). Thus earlier in the period the durative force of the simple verb may assert itself in a compound more than the local force of the prefix, while to-day attention is uniformly directed to the point of arrival or departure.

The intrans. *umschlagen* to upset (intrans.), *capsize*, *change suddenly* is usually conjugated with *sein* on account of the idea of change of location or state contained in the prefix, although the simple verb is a trans. conjugated

with haben: Plötzlich tat nur ein lauter, naher Aufschrei kund, daß vermutlich das gefährdete Boot umgeschlagen sei (Jensen's *Heimkunft*, II. 6). Die wundervollen Illusionen waren schnell in ihr Gegenteil umgeschlagen (Raabe's *A. T.*, chap. v). We often, however, find haben here, as the force of the simple verb asserts itself: Der Wagen hatte umgeschlagen (Schiller). In den Volksschichten hatte die Stimmung gründlich umgeschlagen (Rosegger's *Martin der Mann*, p. 43). In the same manner other verbs fluctuate between haben and sein: Auf dem Rückwege . . . bin ich bei meinem Bruder eingesprochen (Lessing's *Gefang.*, 3, 2). Ich habe bei ihm eingesprochen (M. Heyne).

b. In a prepositional phrase or in an adverb: Das leichte Gefährt war mit Vater und Tochter von dannen gerollt. Er ist über den Fluß geschwommen. Der Nasen war wild in die Höhe geschossen. Wir sind an den Rand des Waldes gelangt. Die polnischen Aspirationen wachen ins Uferlose, sobald nur die Möglichkeit nahe gerückt ist, daß die Regierung sie erfüllen will. In Hessen ist besonders der Notstand zu Tage getreten. Es ist das erste Mal, daß ich auf ein derartiges Mißverstehen gestoßen bin.

2. These same intransitive verbs of motion are conjugated with haben, and not sein:

a. When the idea of duration is prominent and no goal is designated by prefix, prepositional phrase, or otherwise: Wir haben den ganzen Abend getanzt, but Wir sind aus einer Stube in die andere getanzt. So habe ich nie geritten, nie so toll gejagt (Goethe). In seiner Jugend hat er gut geritten, but Er ist fortgeritten. Die Fahnen, die aus dem Hinguge so lustig im Winde geflogen hatten, but Der Vogel ist ins Nest geflogen. Der Wald hat gerauscht *The forest has murmured*, but Der Strom ist dahin gerauscht *The river flowed on murmuring*. Even if the goal is mentioned, haben may be used if the idea of duration is more prominent than that of the goal: So hat er lange Jahre neben seinem Hundefuhrwerk durch die Dörfer getraht (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. xi).

Usage has in part become unsettled here. Such verbs as reiten, fahren, rasen *to rush along*, schwimmen, &c., which are usually used in connection with a goal, and hence are often conjugated with sein, have become so thoroughly associated with this auxiliary that they are often conjugated with it when no goal is mentioned, and even where the idea of duration is present: Wir sind geritten ohne Unterlaß — denn die Verfolger waren schnell (Wildenbruch's *Kaiser Heinrich*, 3, 9). Seine überraschende Kenntnis feltener und kostspieliger Eisen erklärte sich daraus, daß er eine Zeit lang als Schiffschienenjunge gefahren war (Hoffmann's *Rohleders hohe Minne*). Der ist gerast wie toll (N.G. = toll) (Halbe's *Haus Rosenhagen*, 2, p. 94). Heute sind wir tüchtig marschiert. Also in figurative use: Ich habe mich nie um den Morgen gekümmert und bin stets gut dabei gefahren (Raabe's *Pechlin*, chap. x). Hence these words are gravitating towards the group D below. Fahren is often used with haben, not, however, as a verb denoting motion, but in the sense *to perform the duties of a coachman, be a coachman, have charge of the driving*, or with reference to the comfortableness of the vehicle: Er hatte in Wien zehn Jahre gefahren (Lessing's *Minna*, 3, 2). Wir sind nach der Stadt gefahren. Wer hat gefahren? *We rode to town. Who drove?* Der Zug hat heute schlecht gefahren.

Earlier in the period haben was common with pure verbs of motion: Bin ich nicht dein Gesell | darauff du geritten hast zu deiner Zeit (Num. xxii. 30).

b. In a few cases when the verbs are used figuratively: Er hat fortgefahren zu lesen *He continued to read*, but Er ist fortgefahren *He has driven away*. Sein is also used in figurative use, as the force of the simple verb asserts itself: Er ist in der Erzählung fortgefahren (M. Heyne). Ich habe in ihn gedrungen *I have urged him*, but with sein where the local idea is more distinct, as in *Er ist noch nicht in das Geheimnis gedrungen* *He has not yet penetrated into the secret*. We occasionally find sein in the former case, as the literal force of the verb asserts itself: [Sie sagte,] Das seien nutzlose Beunruhigungen, weshalb sie denn auch in ihn gedrungen sei, von solchen Berechnungen Abstand zu nehmen (Fontane's *Stechlin*, VII. p. 107). Er hat sich, ohne daß ich eigentlich in ihn gedrungen

wäre, mit großer Offenheit über seine ökonomische Situation ausgesprochen (Spielhagen's *Selbstgerecht*, p. 75). In verfahren to *proceed, deal with, treat, act*, the original idea of *going* is so little felt that the auxiliary *haben* is often used: Man hat mit unerhörten Exekutionen verfahren (Goethe's *Götz*, 5, 9). Sie haben gegen mich wie gegen einen Erzbischof verfahren (Gutzkow). Dora wußte dies, sonst würde sie eben anders verfahren haben (Junghans). On the other hand, *sein* is also used here, and is now more frequent, as the force of the very common simple verb asserts itself: Das Geschick ist nicht sanft mit mir verfahren (Goethe). Wir sind wohl alle nicht so ganz vollkommen ehrlich und aufrichtig gegen Sie verfahren, wie wir nach strengen Sittenlehren eigentlich sollten (H. Hoffmann).

c. *Treten* is conjugated with *sein* to denote a change of position, but takes *haben* to denote mere contact, a clashing together, treading upon: Er ist auf den Hof getreten, but Er hat ihm auf die Hüftcrangen getreten (H. Paul) and Er hat auf eine Knaupe getreten (id.). Instead of *haben*, however, we often find *sein* here: Du bist mir auf mein Kleid getreten (Fulda's *Jugendfreunde*, 2, 4).

D. With the following growing list of intransitives, in most part simple verbs of motion, *sein* is used even where the destination is not expressed, also where the idea of duration is present: begegnen (see *a*, below) to meet, bekommen (sometimes with *haben*) to suit, agree with, turn out (well or bad) for one, desertieren to desert the army, fallen to fall, fliegen (except in the one case in C. 2. *a*) to fly, fliehen to flee, fließen (see *a*, below) to flow, folgen (see *a*, below) to follow, gehen to go, gleiten to glide, slip, hauern to crouch, fernen to upset (of a boat), kommen to come, kriechen (see *a*) to crawl, creep, landen to land, laufen to run, promenieren to take a walk, reisen to travel, retirieren to retreat, rinnen to run, slow, scheiden to depart, separate, schleichen to sneak, schreiten to step, stride, schwinden to disappear, segeln to sail, sinken to sink, steigen to rise, stranden to run ashore, straucheln (see *a*) to stumble and fall, stürzen fall, tumble, wandeln walk, wandern to travel, journey, weichen to yield, ziehen to proceed, move (intrans.): Er ist mir heute begegnet. Wie ist Ihnen das gestrige Fest bekommen (agreed with)? Welchen Uhr ist nun richtig gegangen? (Raabe's *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. viii). Sie (i.e. die Uhr) ist nie erdentlich gegangen (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, III). Im Dersé war Artillerie verquartiert gewesen, und er war lange, lange vor den Kanonen gestauert, die auf dem Gemeindeanger aufgefahnen waren, und hatte sie mit scheuem Staunen betrachtet (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan?*, I). Ich bin den ganzen Tag gelaufen. Zwei Duellisten . . . schienen ein rasches Echnähern an sich Schneidigkeitsideal zu verbürgern und hätten ebensogut wie Wendelins Talente zu großen Hoffnungen berechnen dürfen, wenn nicht das Gespenst der Entlassung wegen beständig anwachsender Schulden immer nebenher geschritten wäre (Fontane's *Poggenpuhls*, chap. i). Deine treue Liebe ist nicht geschwunden.

It should be remembered that *haben* was much more common here earlier in the period: mein Fuß hat gestrauchelt (Ps. xciv. 18). Nur einem Traurigen hab' ich begegnet (Schiller's *Jungfrau*, 3, 4). Survivals of this former usage can still be found: Ich habe heute früh Dester Mettner begegnet (Schnitzler's *Das Verhältnis*, p. 112). It is possible that begegnen in this last sentence is used with *haben* because it is felt as a transitive, for it is occasionally so employed: Er begegnete auf der Straße die Lehrer vom Gymnasium (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XXII). The earlier use of *haben* with begegnen has given rise to the transitive idea.

a. A few of the above list *may* take *haben* when the local idea disappears, and they become figurative, especially begegnen, in the sense *to meet with* (a difficulty), meet (an emergency), confront, coincide with, and often in the meaning *to treat* (friendly, &c.); fließen and laufen in case of a metonymic subject; folgen in the sense *to obey, follow*; kriechen to crawl, cringe; straucheln to stumble (in a moral sense): Gestern bin ich meinem Bekannten begegnet, but Der Lehrer hat den Unarten der Schüler nachdrücklich begegnet and Und in einem andern Punkte hatten Hehenlohes und Bismarcks politische Gedanken sich schon früher harmonisch begegnet (*Kölnische Zeitung*). Er ist or (laying the emphasis upon

the idea of a conscious agent acting with intention) hat mir hart begegnet (met or treated). Der Eiter ist aus der Wunde geflossen, but Die Augen haben geflossen. Der Wein ist aus dem Faß gelaufen, but Das Faß hatte schon einige Zeit gelaufen (= geleckt), ehe ich es bemerkte. Der Sohn hat dem Vater oder dem Mat des Vaters gefolgt. Hätt' ich nur gleich meinem Instinkt gefolgt! Er hat vor ihm gekrochen. Er ist gestrauchelt, but Er hat gestrauchelt (morally). On the other hand, except in the case of a metonymic subject, we perhaps more frequently find sein with the above verbs also in figurative use, as the force of the verb in its literal meaning asserts itself: Ferdinand VII war vor der rauhen Macht Napoleons gekrochen (v. Sybel). Unter diesen Angehörigen war auch ein älterer Bruder von ihm, der ihm bis dahin ganz besonders unliebsam begegnet war (Fontane's *Der Tunnel über der Spree*, V).

b. We find haben with these verbs in certain set expressions where the original local meaning disappears and durative force becomes prominent: Zwischen uns hat's schon manchmal auf Hieb und Stich gegangen (Otto Ernst's *Jugend von heute*, I, 15) = Wir haben auf Hieb und Stich gekochten.

General Note. Of course verbs that are usually intrans. and take sein are conjugated with haben when they become trans.: Ich bin nach Hause gelaufen *I have run home*, but Ich habe mich außer Atem gelaufen *I have run until I am out of breath*. Er ist vom Dach gestürzt und hat dabei ein Kind tot gefallen.

E. Intransitives that denote a beginning or cessation of activity pure and simple without reference to a change of place or condition are usually conjugated with haben: Das Spiel hat eben angefangen. Der Regen hat aufgehört. Der Sturm hat ausgebläst The storm has spent its fury.

On account of the pronounced inchoative force or the idea of an end or result contained in some of these verbs there is a tendency to employ sein instead of haben: Aber das Wort „Californien“ klang doch wie Gold und Abenteuer, und es war zuerst vor seinem Ohr geklungen, da er aus jenem Briefe seines Vaters dessen drohende Verarmung herauszulesen meinte (Storm's *Bötjer Basch*, p. 30). Ihm war es geklungen (*had sounded*, i. e. *the impression had resulted*), daß sie meine, seine Heiterkeit stamme von ihrem für ein Mädchen sonderbaren Anzug (Jensen's *Heimkunft*, II. 4). Du hast natürlich nicht daran gedacht, daß gestern die Pfingstferien angefangen sind (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, chap. ii). Ich bin von oben angefangen, von der hohen Uhl her, hoch von oben, und bin gesunken ... gesunken ... Von unten anfangen, das ist alles (id., *Jörn Uhl*, chap. xxvi). Der letzte Schlag war schon fünf Minuten ausgeklungen (Börne). Sein aschenfarbenes Gesicht — ein Granatstück hat die Brust zerrissen — ist, soll ich so sagen, ruhig ausgeklungen. Er hat keine Schmerzen gefühlt (Liliencron's *Kriegsromanellen*, Anno 1870, Umzingelt).

192. PARADIGM OF THE COMPOUND TENSES OF loben AND fallen.

Present Perfect Tense.

I have praised, &c.

Indic.		Subj.	
ich habe	} gelobt	ich habe	} gelobt
du hast		du habest	
er hat		er habe	
wir haben		wir haben	
ihr habt		ihr habet	
sie haben		sie haben	

I have fallen (see 191. II. D).

Indic.		Subj.	
ich bin	} gefallen	ich sei	} gefallen
du bist		du sei(e)st	
er ist		er sei	
wir sind		wir seien	
ihr seid		ihr seiet	
sie sind		sie seien	

Perfect Infinitive.

gelobt (zu) haben

gefallen (zu) sein

Perfect Imperative.

2nd per. habe gelobt, hab(e)t gelobt	sei gefallen, seid gefallen
3rd per. er habe gelobt	er sei gefallen, sie seien gefallen

Past Perfect Tense.

I had praised, &c.

I had fallen, &c.

Indic.		Subj.		Indic.		Subj.	
ich hatte	} gelobt	ich hätte	} gelobt	ich war	} gefallen	ich wäre	} gefallen
du hattest		du hättest		du warst		du wär(e)st	
er hatte		er hätte		er war		er wäre	
wir hatten		wir hätten		wir waren		wir wären	
ihr hättet		ihr hättet		ihr wart		ihr wär(e)t	
sie hatten		sie hätten		sie waren		sie wären	

Future Tense.

I shall praise, &c.

I shall fall, &c.

Indic.		Subj.		Indic.		Subj.	
ich werde	} loben	ich werde	} loben	ich werde	} fallen	ich werde	} fallen
du wirst		du werdest		du wirst		du werdest	
er wird		er werde		er wird		er werde	
wir werden		wir werden		wir werden		wir werden	
ihr werdet		ihr werdet		ihr werdet		ihr werdet	
sie werden		sie werden		sie werden		sie werden	

Future Infinitive.

loben zu wollen

fallen zu wollen

Future Perfect Tense.

I shall have praised, &c.

I shall have fallen, &c.

Indic.		Subj.		Indic.		Subj.	
ich werde	} haben	ich werde	} haben	ich werde	} sein	ich werde	} sein
du wirst		du werdest		du wirst		du werdest	
er wird		er werde		er wird		er werde	
wir werden		wir werden		wir werden		wir werden	
ihr werdet		ihr werdet		ihr werdet		ihr werdet	
sie werden		sie werden		sie werden		sie werden	

Conditional Mood.

Pres. I should (would) praise,
fall, &c.

Perf. I should (would) have
praised, fallen, &c.

Present.		Perfect.		Present.		Perfect.	
ich würde	} loben	ich würde	} gelobt haben	ich würde	} fallen	ich würde	} gefallen sein
du würdest		du würdest		du würdest		du würdest	
er würde		er würde		er würde		er würde	
wir würden		wir würden		wir würden		wir würden	
ihr würdet		ihr würdet		ihr würdet		ihr würdet	
sie würden		sie würden		sie würden		sie würden	

193. PARADIGM OF THE COMPOUND TENSES OF *sein* AND *werden*.

Present Perfect Tense.

I have been, &c.

Indic.		Subj.
ich bin	} gewesen	ich sei
du bist		du sei(e)st
er ist		er sei
wir sind		wir seien
ihr seid		ihr seiet
sie sind		sie seien

I have become, &c.

Indic.		Subj.
ich bin	} (ge)worden (178. 2. C)	ich sei
du bist		du sei(e)st
er ist		er sei
wir sind		wir seien
ihr seid		ihr seiet
sie sind		sie seien

Perfect Infinitive.

gewesen (zu) sein

geworden (zu) sein.

Perfect Imperative.

2nd per. sei gewesen, seid gewesen

sei geworden, seid geworden.

3rd per. er sei gewesen, sie seien gewesen

er sei geworden, sie seien geworden.

Past Perfect Tense.

I had been, &c.

Indic.		Subj.
ich war	} gewesen	ich wäre
du warst		du wär(e)st
er war		er wäre
wir waren		wir wären
ihr wart		ihr wär(e)t
sie waren		sie wären

I had become, &c.

Indic.		Subj.
ich war	} (ge)worden (178. 2. C)	ich wäre
du warst		du wär(e)st
er war		er wäre
wir waren		wir wären
ihr wart		ihr wär(e)t
sie waren		sie wären

Future Tense.

I shall be, &c.

Indic.		Subj.
ich werde	} sein	ich werde
du wirst		du werdest
er wird		er werde
wir werden		wir werden
ihr werdet		ihr werdet
sie werden		sie werden

I shall become, &c.

Indic.		Subj.
ich werde	} werden	ich werde
du wirst		du werdest
er wird		er werde
wir werden		wir werden
ihr werdet		ihr werdet
sie werden		sie werden

Future Infinitive.

werden zu wollen.

Future Perfect Tense.

I shall have been, &c.

Indic.		Subj.	
ich werde	} gewesen sein	ich werde	} gewesen sein
du wirst		du werdest	
er wird		er werde	
wir werden		wir werden	
ihr werdet		ihr werdet	
sie werden		sie werden	

I shall have become, &c.

Indic.		Subj.	
ich werde	} (ge)worden sein (178. 2. C)	ich werde	} (ge)worden sein (178. 2. C)
du wirst		du werdest	
er wird		er werde	
wir werden		wir werden	
ihr werdet		ihr werdet	
sie werden		sie werden	

Conditional Mood.

Pres. I should (would) be,
become, &c.

Present.		Perfect.	
ich würde	} sein	ich würde	} gewesen sein
du würdest		du würdest	
er würde		er würde	
wir würden		wir würden	
ihr würdet		ihr würdet	
sie würden		sie würden	

Perf. I should (would) have been,
become, &c.

Present.		Perfect.	
ich würde	} werden	ich würde	} (ge)worden sein (178. 2. C)
du würdest		du würdest	
er würde		er würde	
wir würden		wir würden	
ihr würdet		ihr würdet	
sie würden		sie würden	

THE PASSIVE VOICE.

194. The passive voice denotes that the subject receives the action. The passive in German has, as in English, no special tense or mood forms of its own, but is made up by combining the perfect participle with different auxiliary verbs. The following forms are used in German:

I. A. The usual passive is formed by combining the various moods and tenses of *werden* to *become* with the perfect participle of the verb to be conjugated, which remains uninflected throughout: (pres. indic.) *ich werde gelobt* *I am being praised*, *du wirst gelobt*, &c.; (past indic.) *ich wurde gelobt*; (pres. perf. indic.) *ich bin gelobt worden*; (past perf. indic.) *ich war gelobt worden*; (future indic.) *ich werde gelobt werden*, &c.; (pres. subjunctive) *ich werde gelobt*, *du werdest gelobt*, &c. The only irregularity in the conjugation is that the perf. part. of *werden* is here uniformly without the *ge*: *worden*, not *geworden*. No passive idea lies in *werden*, as it also, when combined with the present infinitive, forms the future active (*ich werde loben*), and the future perfect active when used with the perfect infinitive (*ich werde gelobt haben*). *Werden* retains in the passive its original meaning of *to become*, and thus denotes here a *passing into a state* which is indicated by the perfect participle: *ich werde gerettet* *I am being rescued*, lit. *I am becoming or am going over into the state of being rescued*.

B. However, *werden* is not the only auxiliary employed in the passive, but *sein* is still, according to a usage prevailing in earlier periods, frequently used, replacing *werden* often in the pres. perfect,

past perfect, future perfect, perfect conditional, and even regularly replacing it in the imperative, and often in the present infinitive.

a. In M.H.G. the pres. perfect was formed by combining the pres. of *sein* with the perfect participle of the verb to be conjugated: (indic.) *ich bin gelobet*. The past perfect was formed by combining the past of *sein* and the participle: *ich war gelobet*. This former usage still lingers on, though no longer recognized by grammarians: *über den Begriff der Philologie ist viel herumgestritten* (H. Paul, *Paul's Grundriss*, p. 1, 1st ed.). *Dieß Faustbuch von Dr. Johann Faust ist im Jahre 1587 in Frankfurt a. M. bei Spieß gedruckt* (Baumgart's *Goethes Faust*, p. 20). This older usage is quite common with *gebären*: *Ich bin am 23. Mai 1844 geboren* (Wustmann's *Sprachdummheiten*, p. 107, 3rd ed.).

Note. In those dialects which use the pres. perfect for the past in narrative a peculiar form is used for the past perfect. The perfect part. *gewesen* is added to the old pres. perf. tense form: *Die ist aber nicht ausgezogen, sondern hat immerzu nach den Fenstern von unsere Wohnung rausgesehen, wo eben Licht angesteckt gewesen ist* (Therese in Sudermann's *Die Heimat*, 1, 10).

b. The regular future perfect and perfect conditional forms are still avoided on account of their clumsiness, their place being often supplied by combining the future or first conditional of *sein* with the perfect part.: *ich werde gelobt sein* instead of *ich werde gelobt worden sein*; *ich würde gelobt sein* instead of *ich würde gelobt worden sein*.

c. In an earlier period of the language, *sein* was the passive auxiliary in the infinitive and imperative, and it has tenaciously defended these positions against *werden*, as it is still frequently found in the infinitive where we might naturally expect *werden*, and is used as a rule in the imperative, both in the 2nd and 3rd person, although in the latter also *werden* is found. In the infinitive, *sein* seems to be especially common after the modal auxiliaries, particularly *wollen*: *Wenn er im Lager einherging, wollte er nicht gegrüßt sein* (Ranke). *Er will von niemand getadelt sein*. *Die Geschichte will erzählt sein* (Rosegger). *Die Stunden wollen hingbracht sein bis zum nächsten Morgen* (Junghans) *We must in some way pass the time till morning. Wer darin lieft, möge gesegnet sein von meinem heiligen Willen* (Anselm Heine's *Eine Gabe*, Brockendorf im Lehrerhäuschen). *Nur von dir möchte ich gut genannt sein, was die Welt von mir spricht, ist mir eins* (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, XVIII). *Als eine Merkwürdigkeit mag erwähnt sein, daß, &c.* (Wustmann's *Sprachdummheiten*, p. 55, 3rd ed.). *Mußt' es so rasch gehorcht sein?* (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 5, 11). *Da wir aber noch nicht so vertraut mit einander sind, um uns schlichtweg beim Namen zu nennen und es also durchaus getitelt sein muß: so sagen Sie einstweilen Herr Präsident zu mir* (F. von Saar's *Der 'Exzellenzherr'*). *Diese [Entschuldigun]g beruht auf der Befürchtung, daß ich beleidigt sein müsse, an mein Alter erinnert zu werden* (Suttner's *Im Berghause*, p. 93). *Geliebt werden und nicht wieder lieben können — auch das, Onkel, muß durchgekämpft sein* (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, X). *Es mußte gebrochen sein, oder er ging an dieser Liebe zu Grunde* (Ertl's *Walpurga*). *Und nun setzen wir uns, die Sache soll gleich abgetan sein* (Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, I, 3). *Damit soll nicht gesagt sein, daß man*

nicht auch andere lieben kann (Bartel's *Geschichte der deutschen Literatur*, II, p. 424). Soll mirs denn nicht gegeben sein, den Schatten zu verschrecken? (Schubin's *Refugium peccatorum*, III, 4). O lassen Sie ihn dort begraben sein! (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 5, 12). These examples can easily be multiplied, as the construction is still quite frequent, but the use of werden here is perhaps more common: Er wollte nicht daran erinnert werden (Wildenbruch's *Die Alten und die Jungen*, p. 65). Es muß ja einmal gesagt werden (Sudermann's *Die Ehre*, 2, 11). In the perfect infinitive, however, the older construction with sein may possibly be the preferred one: Dann erzählte er, daß der junge Mensch seiner Gesundheit sowie seinem Beutel wohl zu viel zugemutet haben und von den Seinen in die Verbannung geschickt sein mochte (Schubin's *Refugium peccatorum*, V), instead of the clumsy geschickt worden sein mochte.

The grammarians often give werden as the auxiliary with the passive imperative; usage, however, seems almost wholly upon the side of sein in the 2nd person and usually also in the 3rd person, which, however, is in fact the 3rd person of the pres. subjunctive: Seien Sie gesegnet für alles (Sudermann's *Die Ehre*, 4, 12). O gnädigster Gebieter, sei gepriesen | für so viel Huld (Fulda's *Talisman*, 2, 12). Hier sei es bemerkt Here may it be permitted me to remark. Gott sei es gedankt! Thank God for it! Wer Österreicher ist, der sei gewarnt! (Grillparzer's *König Ottokar*, 2). Gepriesen sei der, welcher mit wirklichem Gewinn den kurzen Augenblick des Behagens aus der unbehaglichen Länge des Tages hervorzuhoben versteht! (Raabe's *Der Dräumling*, xxii). Gesegnet sei dein Eingang, liebes Kind! (id., *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, III. chap. xi). Dem Himmel sei's geklagt (Fulda's *Talisman*, 2, 4). Auf einen wichtigen Punkt sei hier noch die Aufmerksamkeit gelenkt (Brugmann's *Kurze vergleichende Grammatik*, p. 289). Sein is also used in a subordinate clause after a verb expressing will, command: Herrin, ein alter Brauch | will, daß wenn Ostern kam ins Land, | wenn leise grünt der Dornenstrauch | . . . daß dann die erste Vollmondnacht | fliegend und wiegend sei durchwacht (Sudermann's *Die drei Reiherfedern*, 3, 2).

In the following rather rare examples werden is used as auxiliary in the 3rd person: Geheiligt werde dein Name (Luther). Ihr seid von mir geschieden — werd' auch mir, | von euch zu scheiden, Kraft und Mut verliehen! (Goethe's *Tasso*, 4, 2). Ewig werde dein gedacht (Schiller's *Siegesfest*). Die Welt will betrogen werden, so werde sie denn betrogen (*Über Land und Meer*).

The 2nd pers. imperative may be replaced by the imperative of lassen and a dependent infinitive: laß dich überreden (familiar form) *be persuaded*, or *allow yourself to be persuaded*; laßt euch überreden (pl. of familiar form); lassen Sie sich überreden (polite form).

2. A peculiar passive construction is often found, which deserves attention. It is formed by placing the noun which denotes the objective point of the activity in the acc. as the object of the verb bekommen, erhalten, or kriegen (in popular language), and then making the real verb of the sentence an objective predicate in the form of a perfect participle: Er hat es gesagt bekommen = Es ist ihm gesagt worden. Jedermann erhielt 15 Patronen zugezählt Fifteen cartridges were dealt out to each man. Ich kriege meine Mühe redlich bezahlt I am well

paid for my trouble. The passive idea here lies in the perf. part. The object may be suppressed, and the verb bekommen remains almost with the force of the passive auxiliary werden: Aber nicht doch — dafür bekomme ich ja von Fräulein Philippi bezahlt (Wildenbruch's *Die Waidfrau*) Don't pay me — I shall be paid by Miss P. Ellen hatte auch beschert bekommen (Storm's *Unter dem Tannenbaum*, vol. I. p. 180). Seit zwei Jahren war jedoch ein neuer Inspektor da, und weil er verheiratet war, bekamen er und seine Frau und Kinder zwar mit beschert, zogen sich aber dann zurück, in der eigenen Wohnung sich allein noch einmal ein kleines (Weihnachts-) Bäumchen anzuzünden (G. Ompteda's *Eysen*, chap. vi). Compare the colloquial English construction *He got paid for his trouble*.

A similar construction is found after führen, bringen, and nehmen: Man führte ihn an einem Arm gefaßt He was led along held by one arm. Mädchen bringen den Hut auf einer Stange getragen (Schiller's *Tell*, l. 2915). Die Diensthoten brachten kleine Wälder in die Ofen geschleppt (Maria Janitscheck's *Einer Mutter Sieg*, IX). Man nahm ihn gefangen.

3. Another passive construction is not infrequently found which is worthy of attention by reason of its pithy terseness. Instead of müssen *ought* (a necessity which lies in the nature of things) with a dependent passive infinitive a simple tense of gehören *to belong*, *be fit* is used followed by the perfect participle of the verb to be conjugated, which serves as a predicate complement: Ein entlaufen Schaf gehört in seinen Stall geliefert (Scheffel's *Ekkehard*, chap. xxi) A runaway sheep ought to be brought back to its fold. Gerstenberger (tritt herein, schüttelt den Regen von sich ab, schwenkt seine Mütze): Aber auch durch und durch! Kein Faden trocken! Nein zum Auswringen! Vogt: Da gehört ein Grogchen draufgesetzt! (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 121). Dergleichen gehört mit Galgen bestraft (Lienhard's *Till Eulenspiegel*, Der Fremde).

4. Different from the above passive forms is a quasi-passive which does not denote an *action* at all, but only a *state*. It is formed by combining the perfect participle of the verb to be conjugated with the different moods and tenses of the auxiliary sein. The difference between this quasi-passive and the real passive is indicated by the difference in the meaning of the two auxiliaries employed. The forms with werden denote an *action* going on, while the forms with sein denote a *state* that has resulted from previous action: Das Haus wird gebaut *The house is being built*, but Das Haus ist gebaut *The house is built*. Die Tür wird jeden Abend um sechs Uhr geschlossen *The door is shut* (i. e. *some one shuts the door*) *every evening at six*, but Die Tür ist geschlossen *The door is shut*. Die Schiffbrüchigen sind mit großer Gefahr der Brandung entrissen worden, jetzt sind sie gerettet.

This quasi-passive forms a complete conjugation in all the moods and tenses: (pres. indic.) ich bin erschöpft I am exhausted; (past indic.) ich war erschöpft I was exhausted; (pres. perf.) ich bin erschöpft gewesen I have been in an exhausted condition; (past perf.) ich war erschöpft gewesen I had been in an exhausted condition (at a time before a certain event in the past); (future) ich werde erschöpft sein There will be a time when I shall be exhausted; (pres. subjunctive) ich sei erschöpft; (past subj.) ich wäre erschöpft; &c.

In case of verbs which govern a case other than the acc. the construction must be impersonal, the gen. or dat. being retained in the passive: Meine Mutter hat oft gesagt, sie wolle in das Wasser gehen, da sei ihr allein geholfen. Deshalb habt ihr sie denn in die Erde gegraben, wenn ihr im Wasser geholfen war? (Raabe's *Schüdderump*, chap. xiv).

195. SYNOPSIS OF loben IN THE PASSIVE VOICE.

Indicative.

Pres. I am praised, am being praised, &c.

ich werde gelobt

Past. I was praised, was being praised, &c.

ich wurde (or ward) gelobt

Pres. Perfect. I have been praised, &c.

ich bin gelobt worden

Past Perfect. I had been praised, &c.

ich war gelobt worden

Future. I shall be praised, &c.

ich werde gelobt werden

Future Perfect. I shall have been praised, &c.

ich werde gelobt worden sein

Pres. Conditional, ich würde gelobt werden I should (would) be praised.

Perf. Conditional, ich würde gelobt worden sein I should (would) have been praised.

Imperative.

2nd sg. sei gelobt (see 194. i. B. c) be praised.

3rd sg. er sei gelobt, or er werde gelobt let him be praised.

1st pl. seien wir gelobt let us be praised.

2nd pl. seid gelobt, seien Sie gelobt be praised.

3rd pl. sie sollen gelobt werden (or sein) they shall be praised.

Infinitive.

Pres. gelobt (zu) werden (or sein; see 194. i. B. c) to be praised.

Perf. gelobt worden (zu) sein to have been praised.

Participles.

Used as a Verb, Adjective, or Substantive.

Pres. wanting, but often supplied by the perfect gelobt (see 183. 3).

Perf. gelobt, or more rarely gelobt worden (see 184. e).

SUBSTITUTES FOR THE PASSIVE.

196. I. In German more strictly than in English we are confined to the rule that *the passive is only used when it is desired to especially represent the subject as the objective point of an activity*. Often where in English the passive form is common or required, some other

construction is used in German. The most common substitutes for the passive are the following :

1. Very frequently *man* with an active verb : Bei uns schließt man die Türen um 10 Uhr With us the doors are shut at 10 o'clock.

2. The simple reflexive construction described in 218. 3. A. a.

3. The use of *lassen* reflexively with a dependent infinitive ; see 218. 3. A. b.

Note. There is a difference of meaning between these various passive constructions. The passive proper represents the subject as the objective point of an activity. Der Garten wird von dem jetzigen Besitzer erweitert The garden is being enlarged by its present owner. The construction with *man* (see 1, above) and the active represents an indefinite agent at work upon something : Man erweitert den Garten. The construction with *lassen* used reflexively with a dependent infinitive (see 3, above) indicates the possibility of a successful action : Der Garten läßt sich erweitern The garden can be enlarged. The simple reflexive construction (see 2, above) represents the subject as self-acting, either under the impulse of natural forces or some hidden force, so that it seems to act of itself : Mein Herz erweitert sich My heart is being enlarged (under the natural influence of sympathy). Da öffnet sich behend ein zweites Thor Then a second door is quickly thrown open (it seemed to open of itself). Das ändert sich bald That will soon be changed, circumstances will soon alter this condition of things. Sometimes this reflexive construction can be translated by an intrans. as in the first two sentences : My heart is growing broader, larger. Then a second door quickly flies open.

4. Also in a number of other cases active forms in the German are rendered by passives in English :

a. The auxiliary *sollen* is often rendered by *is said to, is expected to, is supposed to* : Er soll sehr reich sein He is said to be very rich. Die Königin soll heute kommen The queen is expected to arrive to-day. Dieses Gemälde soll (is supposed) von Rubens sein.

b. The auxiliary *dürfen* is often rendered by *to be allowed* : Er darf nicht gehen He is not allowed to go.

c. The active infinitive very often has passive force ; see 187. 1.

d. The Gerundive (see 180. A. a, b, c, and B), though active in form, is passive in force.

e. An impersonal idiom is sometimes rendered by a passive : Es bedarf keiner Hilfe No help is needed.

f. The German intrans. *ertrinken* (of human beings) and *erlaufen* (of animals) are translated by *to be drowned* : Der Knabe ertrank. Die Kage erjoff.

g. In its intransitive use *heißen* is usually rendered passively in English, *to be called* : Herodot heißt der Vater der Geschichte Herodotus is called the father of history. Wie heißt das Kind? What is the child called, or what is the child's name?

h. The intrans. *erschrecken* is translated by *to be frightened* : Erschrick nur nicht! Don't be frightened!

i. In German the passive is in general very little used in connection with an infinitive : He was known to be honest Man wußte, daß er ehrlich war. For fuller statement see 185. B. I. 2. d. (4). With *lehren* and *heißen*, however, the passive may be used here ; see 178. 2. B. d. See also 185. B. I. 2. c. *Note*.

II. On the other hand, in its impersonal form, the passive is often used where there is no person or thing represented as being acted on ; see 219. 5. B.

GRADATION (ABLAUT) CLASSES OF THE STRONG VERB.

VOWEL AND CONSONANT CHANGES.

197. A. Gradation. The conjugation of the weak verb is very uniform, and all can in general be conjugated after the model of *loben*, but the strong verb forms its simple tenses and perf. participle by a change of vowel in the stem instead of adding suffixes to the stem. This change of vowel in the different tenses is the result of a different accent which obtained in an earlier period, but is now used to make more clear certain grammatical distinctions such as tense and number. Strong verbs do not all show the same changes of vowel, but subdivide into classes and groups. Each class usually observes within itself a uniform change of vowel in the past tense. The pres. and past tenses cannot have the same vowel. The vowel of the perf. part. is in some groups the same as in the present, in others the same as in the past, or again it may have a different vowel from either. This change of the stem-vowel in the simple tenses and the perf. part. is called gradation. Each class has usually *subdivisions*, differing from each other in the quantity of the vowel or otherwise.

a. The nouns and adjectives made from strong verbs have also a relation to this gradation. Many masculine monosyllabics and feminine disyllabics, also masculine derivatives in *-er* denoting agents, and neuter verbal nouns in *-en* and feminine verbal nouns in *-ung*, often corresponding to our nouns in *-ing*, have the same vowel as the present tense of the verb from which they are formed; other nouns have the same vowel as the past, which are usually masculine if monosyllabic and feminine if disyllabic, and still other nouns are made upon the vowel of the perfect participle: *steigen* to mount, ascend, past *stieg*, perf. part. *gestiegen*; *der Steig* path, *die Steige* path, staircase, *der Steiger* climber, *der Steigende* the one who is now ascending, *das Steigen* ascending, *die Besteigung des Berges* the ascending of the mountain; *der Stieg* ascent, *die Stege* (see 198, 2. Division, *d*) staircase; *der hinaufgestiegene* the one who has ascended. Nouns denoting agents, verbal and participial nouns, are made, as those given above, quite regularly upon the appropriate gradation form; but many other nouns, as *die Stege* (see reference given above), are seemingly irregularly formed, as they have retained in many cases the gradation form of the verb as found in earlier periods, or have undergone peculiar phonetic changes. On account of these irregularities these nouns are especially treated under the different classes, while those regularly formed will not require especial treatment.

Adjectives are not always so easily brought into relation with the present gradation classes as nouns, since they often have retained old gradation forms which the verb has exchanged for newer formations: *zähm tame*, from the past tense of the M.H.G. *zämen* (now *ziemen*, wk.) *to be becoming*, past *zam* (pl. *zämen*), part. *gezomen*, &c.

Note. The exact relation of nouns, adjectives, &c. to the gradation of the verb cannot always be definitely determined. Some nouns are taken directly from a gradation form of the verb and share its verbal force: (*der*) *Bäcker baker* = *one who bakes*, thus pres. and active in force. Other nouns, especially those showing the vowel of the past

tense, although they have the same vowel as a gradation form of the verb, do not have the same verbal force: *das Band tie, feller* = *that which ties, fellers*, thus pres. in force, although the word shows the vowel of the past tense of the verb. It is probable that this class of nouns were not formed from verbs, but that each noun was made directly from the stem from which also the verb was made. Similar phonetic conditions developed the same vowel in verb and noun. As the original stem of such words does not now appear anywhere in the language, it is profitable to associate every noun and adj., where it is possible, with the same gradation form of the verb, as this is the oldest related form to which it can be traced and from which light can be obtained as to its real meaning. Thus when (der) *Fluß* *river* is brought into relation to *fließen* (earlier form of the pl. of the past tense of *fließen* to *flow*) its real meaning becomes apparent. Although originally such nouns and adjectives were not formed directly from the gradation forms of the verb, but developed a similar form under the force of similar conditions, they nevertheless, from long association with the verbal gradation forms, have come to be felt as directly derived from them. This is especially seen in a number of abstract nouns, such as *Ruß*, *Piß*, *Wuchs*, *Hieb*, &c., which have been formed within the present period directly from the gradation forms of the verb after the analogy of other nouns which seemed to be derived directly from the verb. It has become especially common to form such abstract nouns directly from the present tense of both strong and weak derivative and compound verbs: *Verberb*, *Beweis*, *Beleg*, *Nachweis*, &c.

b. The gradation classes are very old, and in course of centuries changes of gradation in individual words within a group or throughout a group, and shifting of words from one group to another, have taken place, and traces of these former gradation conditions can still be clearly seen, and will be noted under the individual groups. Verbs that are followed by Roman numbers used to belong to the classes indicated by the Roman characters. In dialect the groups do not always correspond to those of the written language, as many words have abandoned their group for a more popular one.

c. In several groups the Middle High German form is given below the New High German. In this case two vowels are given in the past tense, as the past tense had a different vowel in the sing. and the pl., as can still be seen in old sayings, where sometimes a rhyme has preserved the older form of the pl.: *Wie die Alten sunen* (now elsewhere *sangen*), *so zwischern die Zungen*. In Luther's language this difference of vowel is still very common, but to-day it has disappeared except in *past present* verbs (see 212. 1) and in the past tense of *werden*: *ich ward* (or *wurde*), *wir wurden*. Wherever the vowel of the past tense was different in the sing. and pl. the subjunctive had throughout the sing. and pl. the mutated vowel of the indic. pl., as can still be seen in past present verbs, the past of *werden* (past indic. *ich ward*, pl. *wir wurden*, subj. *ich würde*, pl. *wir würden*), and other cases mentioned under the different classes.

Also nouns often show even to this day the old pl. vowel of the past tense. Thus (der) *Bund* still shows the vowel of the pl. of the past tense of *binden*, which was still in early N.H.G. *wir bunden*.

d. Factitive verbs (which show that the subject *makes* something do or become something, as *the woodman fells*, i. e. *makes fall, the tree*) are formed from strong verbs by mutating the vowel of the past tense, the consonants remaining unchanged except the final *f* of the stem, which usually becomes *z*. The mutation of *a* is usually written *e*, but in some verbs *ä*. Mutation does not always appear in M.H.G., especially before labials, but later through the influence of Luther and M.G. writers became more general: (M.H.G.) *ersaufen*, *eräufen*. These factitive verbs being derivatives are of course weak. Ex.: *erschrecken* to be afraid, to start with fright, *erschraf*, *erschrofen*, but *erschrecken*, new infin. from the mutated stem of the past, *to make start with fright, to frighten*, past *erschreckte*, perf. part. *erschreckt*; *liegen* to lie, *lag*, *gelegen*, but *legen* to lay (to make lie), *legte*, *gelegt*; *sitzen* to sit, *saß*, *geessen*, but *setzen* to set, *setzte*, *gesetzt*. In older periods when the past tense had a different vowel in sing. and pl. the factitive had the same vowel as the singular.

B. *A-Mutation*. This is a change of vowel in the stem under the influence of a following vowel. If in earlier periods *a*, *e*, *o* followed in the next syllable, the stem-vowel *u* was changed to *o*, except before a nasal + consonant or before *j*. Thus the perf. participle *geholfen* (O.H.G. *giholfan*) has the mutated *o*, while in *gebunden*, perf. part. of *binden*, a verb belonging to the same gradation class, mutation did not take place, as it was hindered by the *nd* following the stem-vowel. This force of *a*-mutation can be seen only in its effects. It can be better studied in O.H.G. by reason of its preservation of the vowels of the unaccented syllable; see 26. B. One result of this force has been that the third gradation class has been split into different subdivisions.

C. *a. Mutation of the back vowels*. In the 2nd and 3rd person sing. of the present indic. and throughout the subj. of the past tense mutation is the rule wherever the stem vowel is capable of it; see 26. A. The *i* of earlier periods which has often been the cause of the mutation has either entirely disappeared or has been reduced to the form of *ε*: (2nd pers. sing. of *fahren*) O.H.G. *du ferist*, N.H.G. *du fährst*; (1st pers. sing. of the past subj. of *nehmen*) O.H.G. *nâmi*, N.H.G. *nähme*. In early S.G., mutation in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. indic. was not an absolute requirement even in the literary language. In some cases the vowel remained here unchanged, especially *au* before a labial, in other cases usage fluctuated. In S.G. dialect and colloquial language of our time usage is trending toward non-mutation: *Du fährst fort?* (Schönherr's *Sonnwendtag*, p. 45). Mutation became established in the literary language under the influence of M.G. writers, especially Luther. In early M.G. mutation had not yet become firmly fixed, but it gradually became in most cases an absolute requirement. In certain words where mutation is not observed in the Midland and North the cause is usually to be ascribed to the fact that the verb in question has also weak forms which have at this point influenced the conjugation.

b. *Mutation of ε to i*. This change of *ε* to *i* (see 26. C) brought about in several classes a difference of vowel between the singular and plural of the pres. indic., and also was the cause of splitting the third gradation class into different subdivisions: (pres. tense indic. of *helfen* in O.H.G.) *hilfu*, *hilfs*, *hilfit*, pl. *helfamês*, *helfet*, *helfant*; but *binden* in the same class takes in O.H.G. (also in N.H.G.) *i* throughout, as it always stands before *n + t* or *d*: *bintu*, *bintis*, *bintit*, pl. *bintamês*, *bintet*, *bintant*. The 1st person sing. of *helfen* is now *ich helfe*, as the pl. vowel has entered the 1st pers. sing. as the result of levelling (see D). The older unlevelled form with *i* in the 1st pers. sing. is still common in S.G. dialect and colloquial language: *Ich weiß ja, daß ich noch nit stirb!* (Schönherr's *Sonnwendtag*, p. 63).

D. *Levelling*. Another force at work among str. verbs is levelling. This is the natural tendency to level out the little irregularities in the conjugation and make it regular. This force has long been at work and is still continuing, as is illustrated below in 200, 2. Division, *a*.

E. *Verner's Law* (see 40. 2. *a*). The effects of a force which was at work in an earlier period upon the consonants of str. verbs—the so-called Verner's Law—can still here and there be seen. Owing to a difference in accent in different conjugational forms of the same word, there arose a difference in the consonants: *ziehen*, *zog*, *gezogen*; *leiden*, *litt*, *gelitten*; *war*, *gewesen*. Thus in the following classes there is occasionally a change in the same word or in related words of *b* to *t*, *h* (now a silent letter) to *g*, and *f* to *r*, as is indicated in each case below.

F. *Differentiation of Forms*. There is a tendency toward the wk. conjugation, and a number of str. verbs have wk. forms alongside of the regular str. ones. Sometimes the wk. and str. forms have the same meaning, sometimes an economic instinct has led to a differentiation of meaning. The wk. forms may be used more in familiar conversation, the str. ones may be

choicer or have a slightly different application. Thus in familiar conversation *er scheltet* can be heard, while in choice language the form is *er schilt*. In the literal meaning *gären to ferment* is str., while in figurative language it is wk.: *Der Wein hat gegoren*, but *Es gärte in ihm*. There are also double str. forms. Here the older form is often used in old saws, poetry or elevated prose, while in common conversation the newer form is used. Thus *hub* is often used in poetry, while in prose it is usually replaced by *hob*.

198. I. Class. Gradation:

Pres.	ei	Past	ī and ie	Perf. Part.	ī and ie.
M.H.G.	ī		ei or ē-ī (197. A. c)		ī.

This class falls into two divisions strictly on the basis of the closing consonant of the stem. If the stem terminates in *θ*, *f*, *þ*, *t* (which includes *leiden* and *schneiden* by virtue of their past litt, *schmitt* and perf. part. *gelitten*, *geschnitten*), the vowel of its past tense and perf. part. is short *i*, while it is in all other cases long *i* (written *ie*).

Historical Note. The explanation of this division lies in an earlier condition of things. Formerly the vowel of the perf. part. and the plural of the past tense was uniformly short *i*. At the beginning of the modern German period all short vowels became long in open syllables; hence, as *θ*, *f*, *þ*, *t* at the close of a stem formed a closed syllable, words containing such final consonants in their stems could not participate in that movement which made the stem vowels of words long in all open syllables. Thus verbs of this class fell into two groups in the perf. part. and the plural of the past tense, one with the new vowel gradation *ī* (written *ie*), the other with the old short *i*. Formerly the singular of the past tense of verbs in this class had a double vowel gradation, *ei* in some cases, *ē* in others. These gradations have disappeared in the verbal conjugation, as the vowel form, *i* or *ie*, which each verb had in the plural has spread to the singular in accordance with the modern tendency to make the vowel uniform throughout the same inflectional system. The derivatives, however, still preserve in a number of cases the old singular vowel of the past tense; see *c* under 1. Division, and *b*, *c*, *d* under 2. Division.

1. Division. Gradation:

Pres.	ei	Past	ī	Perf. Part.	ī.
M.H.G.	ī		ei-ī (197. A. c)		ī.

Examples: *beißen*, *biß*, *gebissen*; *schleifen*, *schliff*, *geschliffen*; *leiden*, litt, *gelitten*; *reiten*, *ritt*, *geritten*.

The following belong here: *beißen* to bite; *sich beißen* to apply oneself to, but *sich beleißen* with the same meaning is wk.; *bleichen* (modern representative of the two M.H.G. verbs *blichen*, str., and *bleichen* [from adj. *bleich*], wk.) to turn pale, while, bleach (intrans.), *grow wan*, sometimes str., usually wk. in the first three meanings, but str. in the last one, as in *Von Tag zu Tag, von Stunde zu Stunde sah die schöne Braut ihn bleicher werden und blick ihm nach* (Ludwig's *Zwischen H. und E.*, XIX); *erbleichen* (modern representative of the two M.H.G. verbs *erblichen*, str., and *erbleichen*, wk.) to turn pale, turn, fade, die, wk. in the first meaning, str. in the last, str. or wk. in the others, wk. especially in the past tense and str. in the perf. part.; *verbleichen* (modern representative of the two M.H.G. verbs *verblichen*, str., and *verbleichen*, wk.) to turn pale (now little used in this meaning), to grow wan, fade, die, str. in the last meaning and str. or less commonly wk. in the others; the

factitive bleichen (from adj. bleich) to *bleach, turn white* is always wk.; gleichen to *resemble, smooth, level, make equal*, intrans. with dat. in the first meaning, trans. with the acc. in the other meanings and in all compounds, in early N.H.G. wk., and still so in all the meanings except the first, where it is now always str., also usually str. in compounds; gleiten to *glide, slide*, sometimes wk., and always so in begleiten (from begeben, and thus not related to gleiten) to *accompany*, but rarely so in the compound ausgleiten to *slip*; greifen to *seize*; feisen (rather coarse word) to *chide, 'jaw,'* str. in the language of Goethe and some other writers, but now commonly wk. as originally; kneifen (rarely wk.) to *pinch*; leiden to *suffer*, but the factitive verleiden (from adj. leid) to *render unpleasant, spoil, set against*, wk.; pfeifen to *whistle*; reißen to *tear, pull, break away from*; reiten to *ride on horseback*; schleichen to *sneak*; schleifen in M.H.G. to *slide, glide*, and still with this meaning in Austria, as in *Als der Schiltten vorüber-schliff* (Rosegger's *Der Adlerwirt*, p. 37), and also elsewhere in the narrowed meanings to *shuffle with the feet* and to *slide on the ice* (in these two meanings also wk.), and from the idea of sliding back and forth on a surface come the common meanings to *polish, grind*; schleifen (now rare; see factitive in c) to *split* (intrans.), *wear out* by use (intrans.); schmeißen to *fling, slam*; schneiden to *cut*; schreiten to *stride*; streichen to *stroke, cross out*; streiten to *contend*; weichen to *yield*, but the factitive weichen to *soften, soak*, from the adj. weich *soft*, is always wk.; also other verbs belong here, but only rarely, and hence are not given; see 205.

a. As the past tense and perf. part. contain a short vowel, a single final consonant must in these forms be doubled to show that the vowel is short and a final *b* is changed to *t* (197. E) and then doubled: reiten, ritt, geritten; schneiden, schnitt, geschnitten. For change from *ß* to *ff* see 4. 2. D, p. 17.

b. Luther still used a different vowel in the sing. and pl. of the past tense as in M.H.G.: ich reit, wir ritten. See *Historical Note*, above.

c. The factitives (197. A. d) in this division have still the vowels of the M.H.G. period when the past sing. contained an *ei*: beißen to *make bite into*, said of liquids in the mechanical arts, as to *stain* (wood), *soak* (wood), *corrode*, &c.; leiten to *lead*, lit. to *make go*, thus preserving an older meaning of leiden (formerly to *go, pass through*, now only used in the derived meanings to *experience, suffer*); reizen to *provoke*, lit. to *cause to break away from one's self-control*; schleifen lit. to *make slide*, hence to *drag, trail, raze* (a fortress); schleifen to *split, to cause to wear out, wear out* (trans.), often confounded with the intrans. str. schleifen to *split, wear out*, hence the trans. is wk. or more commonly str.

d. A number of monosyllabic and disyllabic nouns show the vowel of the past tense: der Biß bite, der Schnitt cut, der Pfiff whistle (sound); die Schnitte slice, &c.

Das Blech (from bleichen in its older meaning to *shine, glitter*) *sheet-metal* shows the mutated (*a*-mutation; see 26. B) form of this vowel.

Some nouns have the vowel of the present tense: der Streit contention, die Schneide edge (of a knife, sword), &c.

2. Division. Gradation:

Pres.	ei	Past	ie	Perf. Part.	ie.
M.H.G.	i	ei or ē-I	(197. A. c)		ī.

Examples: bleiben, blieb, geblieben: reiben, rieb, gerieben.

Here belong: *befleiß*en (simple *fleiß*en now entirely lost) *to take root, stand firmly rooted*, now rare and confined to poetry; *fleiß*en to remain; *gedeiß*en (see *e*) *to thrive*, earlier in the period occasionally wk.; *fleiß*en (N.G., sometimes wk.) to put in order, arrange, fold; *leiß*en to borrow, lend; *meiß*en to avoid; *preis*en *to praise*, earlier in the period wk., now str., but the compound *lobpreis*en *to praise in song*, str. or wk., *lobpreis* or *lobpreis*(e)te, *gelobpreis*en, *lobgepreis*en, or *gelobpreis*t; *reiß*en to rub; *scheið*en VII *to separate*, in early N.H.G. (see Gen. xiii. 14) still in Class VII, 1. Division, which former inflection still survives in the one adjective participle *befcheið*en (see 204, 1. Division, *a*), but in transitive use sometimes wk., as in Gen. i. 4; *scheiñ*en to shine, seem; *schreiß*en to write; *schreien* to scream; *schweigen* to be silent; *spei*en *to spew, vomit* (fire, &c.), *spit* (formerly common in this meaning, now restricted to Blut *spei*en, Feuer und Flammen *spei*en, &c.), earlier in the period also wk., and still wk. in biblical and popular language; *steigen* to mount; *treið*en to drive, impel; *weiß*en *to point out, show*, in early N.H.G. also wk., now str.; *zeið*en *to accuse*, sometimes wk.

a. Luther still used a different vowel in the sing. and pl. of the past tense, as in M.H.G.: *ich schreiß, wir schrieben*.

b. The factitives (197. A. *d*) are: *fleiß*en *to make stick, paste*, now little used, largely replaced by *fleßen* (see *c*); *schweigen* (early N.H.G. and later, now little used in the literary language) *to silence, hush*, perhaps a little more common is the derivative *geschweigen to silence*: Du weißt, die Mutter hing oft ein Tuch über, um ihn (i. e. den Hähnling) zu geschweigen, wenn er so recht aus Kräften sang (Storm's *Immensee*).

c. The vowel *i* of the old plural of the past tense still appears in derivatives: O.H.G. *kliban* to stick (intrans.), which formerly belonged to this class and is still represented here by the poetic compound *befleiß*en given in the list above, is the source of two derivatives: *klimmen* (O.H.G. *klimban* III) II *to climb* (lit. *to stick*), which shows the gradation *i* of the old plural of the past tense of *kliban* and an insertion of a nasal (*m*) between the stem vowel and the consonantal termination, which, however, later became assimilated to the nasal; the wk. *fleßen* (O.H.G. *klebēn*) *to stick*, at first intrans., later also trans., replacing largely in the latter function the factitive *fleiß*en (see *b*). *Fleßen* shows the gradation *i* of the old plural of the past tense of *kliban* changed to *e* under the influence of *a*-mutation (see 26. B). The wk. *zeigen to show*, from *zeißen to accuse* (lit. *to show something against*), has preserved the vowel of the old sing. of the past tense. The *g* instead of *h* is the result of the operation of Verner's Law (197. E).

d. Der Steig *path*, die Steige *path, staircase*, show the vowel of the present tense; der Unterschied *difference*, der Stieg *ascent*, show the new vowel of the past tense, while in die Stege (S.G. from O.H.G. *stega*) *staircase*, der Stieg *path*, we see the mutated (*a*-mutation; see 26. B) form of the plural vowel of the old past. Die Trift (from *treiben*, hence *a place where cattle are driven*) *pasture* and die Schrift *writing* show the vowel *i* of the old perfect participle and the old plural of the past tense. Zeißen *sign, mark*, related to *zeißen to accuse* (lit. *to show, point out something against*), has preserved the vowel of the old sing. of the past.

e. The old perf. part. of *gebeiß*en, according to Verner's Law (197. E), was *gebiegen*. This form still exists, but is now felt as an adjective with the meanings *solid, genuine, sterling*, meanings which are easily brought into relation to the primary signification of the verb. In the present period the older participle has been replaced by the levelled form *gebissen*, which has

resulted from the tendency to level out little inequalities and to extend the same consonant throughout the same inflectional system.

199. II. Class. Gradation :

Pres.	ie, e, au, ü, i, ä, ö	Past	ö	Perf. Part.	ö.
M.H.G.	ie (iu in sing., ie in pl.)	ou or ö-ü (197. A. c)			ö.

This class falls into two divisions strictly on the basis of the closing consonant of the stem. If the stem terminates in *ch*, *f*, *ß*, *sch*, *t* (which includes *steden* by virtue of its perf. part. *gesotten*), a double consonant or a combination of consonants, the vowel of the past tense and perfect part. is short *o*, while it is in all other cases long *ö*. For some reason, however, *bieten* does not follow this law.

Historical Note. The explanation of this division lies in an earlier condition of things. Formerly the vowel of the perfect part. was uniformly short *o*. At the beginning of the modern German period all short vowels became long in open syllables; hence as *ch*, *f*, *ß*, *t*, double consonants or a combination of consonants at the close of a stem formed a closed syllable, words containing such final consonants in their stems could not participate in that movement which made the stem-vowel of words long in all open syllables. Thus verbs of this class fell into two groups in the perfect participle, one with the new vowel gradation *ö*, the other with the old *ö*. Later the vowel of the perfect participle spread by force of analogy to the past tense, so that each verb had the same vowel in the past tense and perfect participle, and there thus arose two divisions of these verbs, each with the same vowel in the past tense and perfect participle.

The old past tense, which had been levelled away in the manner just described, contained two vowel gradations in the singular, *ou* before labials and gutturals (except *ch*) and *ö* before *ch* and dentals, while all alike had the same gradation in the plural, namely, short *u*. When later the vowel of the perfect participle replaced the old vowels of the past tense, the derivatives remained unaffected, and thus still show the old gradations of the past tense; see 1. Division, *c*, *d*, and 2. Division, *c*, *d*, below.

This class was greatly enlarged by accessions from the other classes, as can be seen by glancing at the lists below. Words in other classes which contained a long *o* or a short *ö* in their perfect participle joined those verbs in this class which had there the same vowel, and along with them extended the vowel of their perfect participle to their past tense and became identified with them as members of one class. Their derivatives, however, did not make this change, and still show the older vowels.

1. Division. Gradation :

Pres.	ie, ē, ī, au, ö	Past	ö	Perf. Part.	ö.
M.H.G.	ie (iu in sing., ie in pl.)	ou or ö-ü (197. A. c)			ö.

Examples: *fließen*, *floß* (pl. *wir flossen*), *geflossen*; *sieden*, *sott*, *gesotten*.

Here belong: 1. In *ie*: *verdrießen* to vex; *fließen* to flow; *gießen* to pour; *friechen* to crawl, creep; *genießen* to enjoy; *riechen* to smell; *schießen* to shoot; *schliefen* (S.G.) to slip; *schließen* to shut, close; *steden* to boil, str. only when transitive and used of eggs and the like, which, when 'done,' are said to be *gesotten*, otherwise wk.; *sprießen* to sprout, sometimes wk., now largely confined to choice language, elsewhere usually replaced by the wk. *spießen*; *triefen* to drip, *troß*, *getroffen*, now also often wk., and even more commonly so in the perf. part.

2. In *e*: *dreichen* (du *drischeist* or *drischst*, er *drischt*) III (O.H.G.), IV (M.H.G.) to thrash, also in III Class, 3. Division, rarely

wk.; *fechten* (du *fichst*, er *ficht*) III (O.H.G.), IV (M.H.G.) *to fight*; *flechten* (du *flichtst*, er *flicht*) III (O.H.G.), IV (M.H.G.) *to braid*, *plat*, *plait*, rarely wk.; *melken* (du *milchst*, er *milcht*) III *to milk*, str. forms now, perhaps, less common than the wk. except in the adj. part. (*frisch gemolkene Milch milk just from the cow*), hence more frequently *melte*, *melkst*, *melkte*, *gemelkt*; *quellen* (du *quillst*, er *quillt*) III *to swell up*, *gush*; *schellen* III *to sound* (intrans.), now replaced in the pres. by the wk. *schallen*, past *schallte*, in poetic or choice language *scholl*, in early N.H.G. *schall* (Mark i. 28) according to former class, perf. part. *geschallt*, str. only in poetic or choice language in certain compound words as *erschollen resounded*, and always in *verschollen forgotten*, lit. *sound or report (of him, her, it) died away*; *schmelzen* (du *schmilzest*, *schmilzt*, or *schmelzest*, er *schmilzt*, *schmelzt*, str. forms here more common than wk.) III *to melt* (intrans.), but the rarer *schmilzen to melt* (trans. or intrans.) is wk.; *schwellen* (du *schwilst*, er *schwilt*) III *to swell up*, *out* (intrans.).

3. In *i*: *glimmen* III *to glimmer, smoulder*, str. or perhaps more frequently wk.; *flimmen* III *to climb*, str. or wk.; also the adjective participle *bekommen breathing with difficulty, anxious, oppressed in one's feelings, oppressive*, adjective and participle from the lost *beklimmen* (but *beklemmen* with the same meaning *to oppress one's feelings* is entirely wk.), only rarely, however, as a real participle with verbal force: *Hat dir je den Bufen Liebeschmerz bekommen?* (Platen); the adj. part. *verflommen stiff with cold, cramped*, from the str. M.H.G. *verklimmen to press together, cramp*. The weak part. *verflammt* (sometimes *verflamt*, *verflom(m)t*) with the same meaning as *verflommen* is from the weak intrans. verb *verflammen* (sometimes *verflamen*, *verflom(m)en*) *to become stiff with cold*.

4. In *au*, (*ä*) or *ö*: *saufen* (du *säufst*, er *säuft*) *to drink* (of animals, or as animals), *soff*, *gesoffen*, sometimes wk.; *erlöschen* (du *erlöschest* or *erlöschst*, er *erlöschet*) III (O.H.G.), IV (M.H.G.) *to go out* (of a light, &c.), intrans., sometimes wk. Here also belongs the poetic part. *gerochen* from *rächen to avenge*, now usually entirely wk., in early N.H.G. *ich rache*, du *richst*, er *richt*, past *rach*, later *roch*. The strong part. is still occasionally found in prose: *Das soll sieben Mal gerochen werden* (Frenssen's *Heimatsfest*, I, 1).

General Remarks on the 1. Division :

a. For the change of vowel in the 2nd and 3rd person sing. pres. tense, see 177. II. D. *a, b, c, d, e, f*.

b. The 2nd and 3rd person sing. pres. still occasionally show in poetry old forms in *eu*, which were the rule in Luther's works: *fließt*, *frucht*, &c. for *fließt*, *frucht*, &c. For the development of *eu* out of M.H.G. *iu* see p. 3, 2nd paragraph (2). The *ie* of the plural had in Luther's language supplanted the M.H.G. *iu* (N.H.G. *eu*) in the 1st pers. sing., but had not yet driven it out of the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. Later the *ie* levelled the entire sing.

c. The factitives (197. A. *d*) are: *ersäufen to drown*, from M.H.G. *ersoufen*; *flößen to wash down, away, to float logs*; *flößen to administer wine, medicine, &c.*, instil (courage, &c.), float logs; *träufen to make fall in drops upon*, from M.H.G. *troufen*; *löschen to extinguish, quench, slack (lime), lay (dust)*; *quellen to soak* (peas, &c.); *schellen to cause to sound, ring* (bell for servant, &c.); *schmelzen to cause to melt, melt* (trans.), also strong, as it is under the

influence of the strong intransitive, as in *Sie schmelzen Schnee und Eis* (Ludwig's *Zwischen Himmel und Erde*, XX), and, perhaps, more commonly so in the perf. part.; *schwellen* to cause to swell up. For the change of M.H.G. ou to N.H.G. au see (4), p. 3. Hence M.H.G. öu became N.H.G. äu. The last five verbs in the above list were formed when they were in their former class (III), hence the vowel *e* in their stem, but *leschen* was later corrupted to *lēschen*, which form was also extended to the str. verb. The strong verb *lēschen* is often confounded with the wk., hence the wk. forms which are frequently found instead of the more correct str. in the intrans. use: *Dann war es, als lēschten alle diese Lichter aus* (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, I. chap. i).

d. Most nouns made from the past tense of the original verbs of this class show the old vowel of the pl.: *der Verdruß* vexation, *der Guß* downpour (of rain), casting (of a bell, &c.), *der Genuß* enjoyment, &c.; *die Schluft* or more commonly *Schlucht* (from Low German) cleft. In other cases the *u* has changed to *ö* under the influence of *a*-mutation (26. B): *der Fluß* river, with old *u*, but *die Flöße* (O.H.G. flozza) *fin*, with *u* mutated to *ö*. In *Flöß* raft we have the old gradation *ö* of the past singular, and in *Schleife* (for the correct early N.H.G. *Schläufe*) *noose* the mutated form of the old gradation *au* (M.H.G. ou). For the explanation of the forms *Schall*, *Schmalz*, *Schwall* see 200, 3. Division, c.

2. Division. Gradation:

Pres. <i>ie, e, au, ü, ä, ö</i>	Past <i>ō</i>	Perf. Part. <i>ē</i> .
M.H.G. <i>ie</i> (iu in sing., <i>ie</i> in pl.)	<i>ou or ö-ū</i> (197. A. c)	<i>ō</i> .

Examples: *biegen*, *bog*, *gebogen*; *wiegen*, *wog*, *gewogen*.

Here belong: 1. In *ie*: *biegen* to bend; *bieten* to offer; *fliegen* to fly; *fliehen* to flee; *frieren* to freeze; *fiesen*, see *füren* in 4, below; *fließen* (now only used in S.G.) to split; *schieben* to shove; *fliehen* to fly away (in the form of mist, dust, or other small particles), to scatter (intrans.); *verlieren* to lose; *wiegen* and *wägen* (*du wiegst*; see *Note*; sometimes wk.) V, the former *to weigh on the scales*, used transitively or intransitively, and also *to weigh in the mind* when used intransitively, the latter *to weigh with the mind*, used only transitively; (*wiegen* to rock, always wk.); *ziehen* to draw, pull, go, move (intrans.), *zog*, *gezogen*.

Note. The parts of *wiegen* and *wägen* *to weigh, move* (intrans., a meaning now in general obsolete in the original verb, but surviving in the factitive *to move* and other derivatives) were in early N.H.G. according to V: *wegen* (*du wiegst, er wiegt*), past *wag* (sometimes *wug*), pl. *wägen* (developed from M.H.G. *wägen*; sometimes *wügen*), perf. part. *gewegen*. Later the present was split into two forms *wiegen* and *wägen* (corrupted from *wegen* under the impression that it was a derivative of *Wage* pair of scales), the former of which resulted from the levelling of the forms by the vowel of the 2nd and 3rd person sing., the latter from levelling by the 1st person sing. The plural form of the past *wegen* levelled the sing. to *wog*, and later the vowel *o* spread also to the perf. part. except in case of *verwegen* (see 5, below). The vowel of the old present survives in lengthened form in *Weg* way (lit. *that over which something moves*). The vowel of the old sing. of the past survives in lengthened form in *Wagen* wagon (lit. *that which is moved*) and in mutated form also in the weak factitive *bewegen* to move in c below and the strong factitive *bewegen* to induce (lit. *to make the will move*) in 2, below, which, however, ought to be weak. The vowel of the old M.H.G. plural of the past survives in *Wage* (pair of scales). The modern vowel of the past is found in *Woge* billow (lit. *that which is moved*).

2. In *e*: *heben* (*hebt*) VI to lift; *pflügen* (*pflügt*) V to devote oneself to, carry on (negotiations, &c.), past tense in poetical language sometimes *pflag* (according to its former class), wk. throughout in the meaning *to be accustomed to*; *scheren* (*du scherst*, or in poetic style

also *schierst* *you cut*, *du schierst* or *schierst* *you bother*, *das schert* or *schert* *dich nicht that doesn't concern you*, *schier'* or *schier* *dich fort get out of here*) IV *to cut, shear, be off, bother, concern*, perf. part. usually str., past tense str. in the first and second meaning, wk. or str. in the fourth and fifth, and rare in the third, the word in this use being largely confined to the imperative; (*bescheren to give, present*, always wk.); *weben* (*webst*) V *to weave*, usually wk., sometimes str., more commonly so in poetic language and in the figurative use alongside of the wk., sometimes with an adjective participle made according to its former class, as in *die festen hauswebenen* (for *hausgewebten*) *Stoffe the strong home-woven fabrics*; *bewegen* (*du bewegst*; see I. *Note*, above) V *to move the will, induce*, but wk. in the other applications of the meaning *move*, as *to move the feelings, move objects*, &c.

3. In *au*: *saugen* (*du saugst*, in early N.H.G. also *du seugst* or *säugst*) *to suck*, sometimes also wk. throughout; *schmauchen* (*du schmauchst*, in early N.H.G. also *du schneuchst* or *schnäuchst*) *to snort*, wk. or in poetry and choice prose also str.; *schrauben* (*du schraubst*) *to screw*, usually wk. as originally, sometimes str., especially in the adjective perf. participle *verschroben distorted, crazy, cranky*.

4. In *ü*: *fürén* (from *die für* *choice*, and hence in a strict sense more properly wk.) or *fiesen* (more properly str.), both confined largely to a choice style with the meaning *to choose*, for (rarely *fiesie*) or *fürte*, *gefóren* (rarely *gefiesie*) or *geführt*; *lügen* (in early N.H.G. *liegen*; the present spelling has come from association with the derivative *die Lüge lie*) *to lie (falsify)*, sometimes wk.; *trügen* (older form *triegen* still common in eighteenth century; the present spelling has come from association with its derivative *der Trug deception* and analogy with *lügen*) *to deceive*, occasionally wk.

5. In *a* and *ö*: *gären* (earlier in the period *giert* in 3rd pers. sing., now *gärt*) *to ferment, work, effervesce*, str. in the literal meaning, wk. when used figuratively, as illustrated by an example in 197. F; *schwären* (*schwärt*, now rarely *schwiert*) IV *to fester, suppurate*, past sometimes *schwärte*; *schwören* VI *to swear*, *schwör* or *schwur* (old form according to its original class, still not infrequently used in choice language, and indeed the favorite form in the subj., i. e. *schwüre*), *geschworen*, only rarely wk. throughout; *wägen* (M.H.G. *wēgen*), see *wiegen* under 1, above; *sich verwägen* (sometimes *verwegen* as in M.H.G.; for construction see 262. II. A. b) V *to dare, venture upon*. The adj. or adv. perf. part. *verwegen bold, daring* is formed according to the former class of *verwägen*. The adj. or adv. part. *verwögen*, according to its present class, is also found, but now more commonly with differentiated meaning, *jaunty*: *Er hat einen alten Jägerhut ziemlich verwögen auf den schon stark angegrauten Kopf gesetzt* (Hauptmann's *Hannele*, 1, p. 12). *Ich seh' dich schon als verwögene Schlossherrin* (Halbe's *Haus Rosenhagen*, 2, p. 80).

General Remarks on 2. Division:

- a. For interchange in 2nd and 3rd person sing. see 177. II. D. a, b, c, d, e, f.
- b. Old forms in *eu* occur in poetry in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing.: *fleucht* &c. for *flieht*, &c. For explanation of the forms in *eu* see I. Division, General Remarks, b.

c. The factitives (197. A. d) in this division are *beugen to make bend, bend* (the will, spirit, knee, head, &c.), from M.H.G. böugen; *bewegen to move*, made when *wegen* (see I. Note, above) was in V class; in Switzerland *entwegen to swerve*, from which comes the new but common literary perf. part. *unentwegt unswerving*: an diesen Absichten unentwegt . . . festzuhalten (Bismarck); *fäugen to suckle*, from M.H.G. söugen; *stäuben* (sometimes replaced by *wk. flieben*, which is properly str. and intrans.) *to throw off fine particles (as dust, spray, mist)*, *to scatter* (trans.), *strew*, from M.H.G. stöuben. Notice that in the original factitives of this class the stem vowel is *äu* (in *beugen* written *eu*), as according to (4), p. 3, M.H.G. *ou* has developed into N.H.G. *au*, and consequently M.H.G. *öu* is represented by N.H.G. *äu*.

d. The nouns made from the gradation of the past tense show the vowels of the old singular and plural: *der Staub* (from M.H.G. *stoup*, which, according to (4), p. 3, has become N.H.G. *Staub*) *dust*, *der Flöh* *flea*, *der Flug* *flight*, *die Lüge* (O.H.G. *lugī*) *falsehood*, *Fröst* (*a*-mutation from old stem *frosta*; see 26. B) *frost*, &c. The old *u* and *o* (*a*-mutation) were short, but at the beginning of the present period they became long before one consonant: *Lug*, *Flug*, *Geböt*, but *Flucht* (*fliehen*), *Verlust*, *Fröst*, *Flüft* (*flieben*).

Die Scharte nick, made from the old weak participle *schart cut, nicked*, shows the old singular vowel of the past tense of Class IV, to which *scheren* formerly belonged. *Die Schur shearing* shows a lengthened vowel form of the same class which is no longer preserved elsewhere.

200. III. Class. Gradation:

Pres. i, e

Past a

Perf. Part. u, o.

I. Division. Gradation:

Pres. i

Past ä

Perf. Part. ü.

M.H.G. i

ä-ü (197. A. c)

ü.

Examples: *binden, fand, gebunden*; *dringen, drang, gedrungen*.

Here belong: *binden to bind*; *dingen to hire*, *dang (dung)* or *bingte*, subjunctive *dänge, dingte, gedungen, gedingt*, originally *wk.*; *bedingen, str.* or now less commonly *wk.* in the sense *to reserve in a contract something for oneself*, but *wk.* in the adjective participle in the meaning *conditional* (*ein bedingtes Versprechen a conditional promise*, but *Das habe ich mir bedungen That I have reserved to myself*), always *wk.* in the meanings *to cause, bring about, require* (as a necessary condition of success), *constitute*; *dringen*, now usually intrans. *to penetrate, crowd, rush, press into*, earlier in the period also trans. *to press, crowd, push, force*, and still so in *abdringen to extort from*, *einem etwas aufdringen* (or *aufdrängen*) *to force something upon one*, and also in certain participial expressions, as *dringende Gefahr, eine gedrungene Gestalt, notgedrungen, ich fühle mich gedrungen*, also in *dringlich pressing, auferinglich obtrusive, obtruding*, elsewhere now usually replaced in the transitive use by the *wk.* *drängen*; *finden to find*; *gelingen to succeed*; *flingen to sound*, either str. or *wk.* in the meaning *to clink glasses*; *ringen to wrestle, wring*; *schinden to flay, skin* (one's limb), *schind* or *schindete, geschunden*, originally *wk.*; *schlingen to twine, swallow*; *schrinden to burst, chap* (intrans.), *schrund* or *schrاند, geschrunden*, now little used; *schwinden to disappear*; *schwingen to swing, wave, whirl*, but *beschwingen to wing*, derivative from *Schwinge wing*, always *wk.*; *singen to sing*; *sinken to sink*; *springen to spring, leap*; *stinken to stink*; *trinken to drink*; *winden to wind*; *wringen to wring (out)*, N.G. form of *ringen*, but also in use in the South; *zwingen to force*.

a. Here belongs the adj. part. *gebunſen* (usually *aufgebunſen*) *bloated*, of the now otherwise obsolete *bünſen*; also the adj. part. *verwunſchen* (also *verwünſcht*) in the one meaning *enchanted*, from the otherwise wk. verb *verwünſchen to curse, enchant*. In careless, colloquial language the weak *ſchimpſen to rail against, abuse*, often forms a perf. part. according to this class: *Haſt doch ſonſt immer ſo ſämſch auf das alte Neſt geſchimpſen* (M. Dreyer's *In Behandlung*, 1).

b. Luther still used a different vowel in the sing. and pl. of the past tense, as in M.H.G.: *ich band, wir bunden*. In archaic style we find the old pl. even in the nineteenth century: *Durch die das Paradies wir wieder funden* (Tieck's *Oct.*, 155). In the course of the seventeenth century the past tense was 'levelled,' the vowel of the sing. spreading to the pl. In two words, however, the pl. vowel has entered the sing.: *ich ſchund, wir ſchunden*; *ſchrund, ſchrunden*. Earlier in the period we find also other words that were levelled according to the pl.: *Der junge Graf, voll Löwengrimm, | ſchwung ſeinen Geldenſtab* (Schiller's *Graf Eberhard*).

c. The factitives (197. A. d) of this division are: *verſchwenden to squander*; *ſengen to singe*, lit. *to cause to sing*, referring to the crackling noise of flames; *ſenken to sink* (trans.); *ſprengen to blow up, blast*, to ride at full speed; *ſtänken*, or more commonly *ſtänfern*, to cause to stink; *tränken to give to drink*, to cause to drink in (used of animals, persons, and materials: *Man tränkt das Vieh, ein Kind, die dürre Erde, Pflanzen, die Seele mit großen Empfindungen*); *wenden to turn*.

d. The nouns of this division made from the gradation of the past tense now show the vowel of the sing. and now the pl. vowel of the old past: *der Band volume*; *der Bund alliance*; *der Schwund disappearance*; *der Zwang compulsion, constraint, &c.*

2. Division. Gradation:

	Pres. (177. II. C, D. b, c)	Past.	Perf. Part.
	ī, ē (ī in 2nd & 3rd sing.)	ā (subj. ā or ō)	ō.
M.H.G.	ī, ē (ī in sing. and ē in pl.)	ā-ū (197. A. c)	ō.

Examples: *ſpinnen, ſpann*, subj. *ſpänne* or *ſpönne*, *geſponnen*; *gelten* (du *giłst*, er *giłt*), *galt*, subj. *gälte* or *gölte*, *gegolten*.

Here belong: *beginnen to begin*, past *begann*, in early N.H.G. usually *begunde* (sometimes *begunte*, *begonſte*, *beginnte*, *began*, *begun*), later *begunte*, *begon(n)te*, *begonn*, *begann*, perf. part. *begonnen*, in early N.H.G. *begunnen*, *begönt*, *begunt*, *begonnen*; *berſten* (du *birſt* in choice language, in colloquial speech, perhaps, more commonly *berſteſt*) to burst, *barſt*, sometimes *borſt* and *berſtete*, subj. *bärſte*, *börſte*, or *berſtete*, perf. part. *geborſten*; *gelten* (du *giłst*) to be worth, pass for; *riinnen to flow, run* (of liquids); *ſchelten* (du *ſchiltſt* or colloq. sometimes *ſchelteſt*) to scold; *ſchwimmen to swim*; *ſinnen to meditate*, in early N.H.G. wk., and some scholars see in *geſinnt disposed, minded* a survival of this older usage, while others with more reason regard this wk. participle as derived directly from *Sinn bent of mind* (distinguish between *geſinnt* and *geſonnen*: *Er iſt übel geſinnt evil-minded* and *Er iſt geſonnen, eſ zu tun is willing, inclined, or intends to do it*); *ſpinnen to spin*; *gewinnen to win*.

a. In the earlier part of the N.H.G. period the M.H.G. *u* in the plural of the past indicative became *o* before *nn* and *mm* in accordance with a general phonetic law (see p. 3, 2nd paragraph (6)), *ſunnen, ſünnen* (subjunctive) becoming *ſonnen, ſönnen*. In the other words of this group the plural vowel sometimes became *o* after the analogy of these words and under the influence of the *o* of their own

perfect participle: wir hürsten or hörsten. This *o* then spread to the subjunctive (as in *hörste*), which formerly had the same vowel as the plural of the indicative. The *u* and the *o* of the past indicative which were still used by Luther dropped out later entirely from the plural, or, speaking technically, the plural was "levelled" by the singular: ich hörst, wir hörsten. Occasionally, however, the plural vowel levelled the singular: das Grundleis hörst (Bürger's *Lied v. br. Mann*). The *a* spread also to the subjunctive, so that there are now two forms, the older one in *o* and the newer one in *a*: ich gölte or gälte. The *ö* of the subjunctive though warmly defended by the grammarians is slowly dying. This *ö* of the past subj. is most common in verbs with the stem vowel *e* in the present, as the new past subj. with the stem vowel *ä* is in these verbs identical in sound with the present: gölte often instead of gälte, as the latter form is the same in sound as the pres. gelte.

b. The factitives (197. A. *d*) are: brennen (brannte, gebrannt) *to burn* (trans. and intrans.), from the str. intrans. brinnen *to burn*, which earlier in the period belonged here, but is now replaced by brennen, which thus assumed the intrans. force of the parent word in addition to its own trans. meaning; rennen (rannte, geraunt) *to run* (dagger, &c.) *into, run or race* (intrans. with sein), but in the meanings *to curdle* (milk), *melt* (iron), *raft* (logs) always trans., usually with the principal parts rennen, rennte, gerennt; schwemmen *to wash away, lit. to make swim*.

3. Division. Gradation:

Pres. (see 177. II. C, D. <i>b, c</i>)	Past	Perf. Part.
ě (ĩ in 2nd & 3rd sing.)	ǎ	ǒ
M.H.G. ě (ĩ in sing. and ě in pl.)	ǎ-ũ (197. A. <i>c</i>)	ǒ

Examples: helfen (du hilfst, er hilft), half, subj. hülfe or hülfē, geholfen. The old past subj. with the stem vowel *ũ* is still often, perhaps prevailingly, used, as the new form with the stem vowel *ä* is identical in sound with the form for the present tense.

Here belong: bergen (du birgst), dreichen (du drischest) *to thrash*, usually in the II class, the past sometimes drāsch and in that case to be placed in the IV class; helfen (du hilfst) *to help*; sterben (du stirbst) *to die*; verderben (du verderbst) *to spoil* (trans. and intrans.); werben (du wirbst) *to enlist, woo*; werden (see 177. III. *c*) *to become*; werfen (du wirfst) *to throw*; the adjective verworren *in a state of disorder, confusion*, perf. part. of the lost verwerren. The related verwirren *to confuse* is entirely weak. Compare the adjective verworren with the wk. part. verwirrt: Weil er ganz verwirrt war, war auch seine Rede verworren *Because he was confused, his thoughts were in a state of disorder*. Er ist verwirrt *He is* (temporarily) *confused* (by something), but Er ist verworren *His thoughts are in a chronic state of disorder*.

a. Luther still used a different vowel in the sing. and pl. of the past tense as in M.H.G.: ich starb, wir starben (sometimes storben).

b. The one factitive (197. A. *d*) is verderben *to cause to spoil, to spoil* (trans.), but usually now limited to spoil in a moral or a phonetical sense, that is, *to corrupt*, and in other senses now replaced by the str. verderben: ein verderbtes Herz; ein verderbener Magen. But even in the moral sense the str. forms are common.

c. Notice the noun der Wurf, which still shows the pl. vowel of the old past tense of werfen.

The nouns Schall *sound*, Schmalz *lard*, Schwall *swell*, and the adjective

flamm (N.G.) *tight, clammy* still show the old past tense sing. vowel *a* of the verbs *schellen* (now obsolete in pres. tense) to sound, *schmelzen* to melt, *schwellen* to swell, *flimmen* to *pinch* (old meaning now only preserved in *flamm* and its derivative *flemmen* to *pinch*), *climb*, all of which have left this class for Class II.

201. IV. Class. Gradation:

Pres. (see 177. II. C, D. <i>b, c</i>)	Past	Perf. Part.
<i>ā, ē, ē</i> (ī, ie in 2nd & 3rd sing.), <i>ö</i>	<i>ā</i>	<i>ö, ö</i>
M.H.G. <i>ē</i> (ī in sing. and <i>ē</i> in pl.)	<i>ā-ā</i> (197. A. <i>c</i>)	<i>ö</i>

Examples: *brächen* (du *brichst*, er *bricht*), *bräch*, *gebröchen*; *erschrecken* (du *erschrickst*, er *erschrickt*), *erschrak*, *erschrocken*; *treffen* (du *triffst*, er *trifft*), *traf*, *getroffen*; *stehlen* (du *stiehst*, er *stiehlt*), *stahl*, *gestohlen*. The *quantity* of the vowel is the same in the infinitive and perf. part. The vowel of the past is always long. See also *a*, below.

Here belong: *brechen* (du *brichst*) to break; *gebären* (du *gebierst*, often *gebärst*) to bear, bring forth; *befehlen* (du *befiehlst*) III to command; *empfehlen* (du *empfiehlst*) III to recommend; *nehmen* (du *nimmst*, er *nimmt*) to take, *nahm*, *genommen*; *schrecken* (du *schrickst*) or more commonly *erschrecken* to be frightened, str. used intransitively or sometimes reflexively, but also often wk. in both uses, *ausschrecken* to start up with fright, *zurückschrecken* to start back with fright and *zusammenschrecken* to be overcome with fright, both str. and wk.; *sprechen* (du *sprichst*) to speak; *stecken* (du *stichst*) to stick with a pointed instrument, sting, stab; *stehen* (du *stichst*, er *sticht*, common in the classical period but now usually replaced by the wk. forms du *steckst*, er *steckt*) to remain sticking in, intrans., often with a strong past *stak* and with a rare perf. part. *gestochen*, but now usually wk.; *stehlen* (du *stiehst*) to steal; *treffen* (du *triffst*) to hit, *traf*, *getroffen*; *kommen* (du *kommst*, *kömmt*, the latter form common in the classics but now less frequent, especially in choice language) to come, *kam*, *gekommen*.

a. Those words that have double consonants or *đ* in the infin. and part. must drop one consonant or the *c* in *đ* in the past as the vowel is long; see examples.

b. *Befehlen* and *empfehlen* which used to belong to III class had a past subj. in *ö* like *gelten*, and have retained it alongside of the new *ā*: *befähle* or *befähle*. Also *stehlen* has a past subj. in *ā* or *ö*, as earlier in the period the irregular form *stohl* (the *ö* after the analogy of the perf. part.) was used alongside of the regular form *stahl*.

c. Here belongs *unverhohlen* open, unconcealed, adj. part. of the late M.H.G. *verhēln*, now replaced by the wk. *verhehlen* to conceal.

d. The factitives (197. A. *d*) are *erschrecken* to frighten, usually wk., but sometimes (as in case of the factitive *verderben* and others) is str. in colloquial language, as it is influenced by the str. intrans., as in *Du erschrickst ein'n aber auch* (Hauptmann's *Friedensfest*, 1); *stehen* to make stick, stick (trans.).

e. Nouns are made from the gradation of the present tense: *der Befehl*, *der Schreck*, *der Stich*, &c. A number have the gradation of the past tense: *Die Sprache*, *die Ausnahme*, *die Qual* (from the lost *queln* to suffer pain), &c. *Stachel* and its derivatives *stachelig*, *stacheln* have short *a*, the vowel of the old sing. In verbs this old gradation has disappeared, as the sing. was levelled by the pl. It remains, however, in mutated form in the factitives; see *d*, above. Other nouns have *u*, which was once also the stem vowel of perf. part.: *der Bruch*, *die Geburt*, *die Ankunft*, &c. The old stem vowel of the part. suffered

a-mutation (197. B), which was caused in an earlier period by the presence of an *a* (now *e*) in the participial suffix. The nouns originally belonged to 3rd cl. str., and thus had *i* as the final vowel of their stems and were preserved from a-mutation. The effect of the original *i* in the stem can be still seen in the pl. in the *i*-mutation (see 26. A) of most of these words: *der Bruch*, pl. *die Brüche*. The noun *der Brocken* *crumb* and the weak verb *brechen* *to crumb*, both from *brechen*, have, like the perfect participle, the vowel *ö*. The *t* was not shifted to *ch*, as it was doubled. The noun *Trötte* *wine-press* shows the vowel of the old present of *treten* (Gothic *trudan*), the older vowel of the Gothic appearing as *o* under the influence of a-mutation. Later the parent verb was attracted into Class V, as the past tense gradation is identical in the two groups, the parts becoming *treten*, *trat*, *getreten* after the analogy of *geben*, *gab*, *gegeben*.

202. V. Class. Gradation:

Present (177. II. C, D. <i>b, c</i>)	Past	Perf. Part.
<i>ē, ē</i> (<i>ī, ie</i> in 2nd and 3rd per. sing.), <i>ī, ie</i> M.H.G. <i>ē</i> (<i>ī</i> in sing. and <i>ē</i> in pl.), <i>I</i>	<i>ā</i> <i>ā-ā</i> (197. A. <i>c</i>)	<i>ē, ē</i> <i>ē</i>
1. Division. Gradation:		
Pres. <i>ē, ē</i> (<i>ī, ie</i> in 2nd and 3rd sing.)	Past <i>ā</i>	Perf. Part. <i>ē, ē</i>

Examples: *ēssen* (*du iſseſt* or *iſt*, *er iſt*), *āſ* (pl. *wir āſen*), *geēssen*; *leſen* (*du lieſeſt* or *lieſt*, *er lieſt*), *lāſ*, *geleſen*. The *quantity* of the vowel is the same in the infinitive and perf. part. The vowel of the past is always long.

Here belong: 1. In *e*: *eſſen* (*du iſseſt* or *iſt*, *er iſt*; see also *a*) *to eat*; *freſſen* (*du friſseſt*, *er friſt*) *to eat* (of animals or as animals); *geben* (*du giſt*, *er giſt*) *to give*; *geneſen* (*du geneſeſt*) *to recover* from sickness; *geſchehen* (*eſ geſchieht*) *to happen*; *leſen* (*du lieſeſt* or *lieſt*, *er lieſt*) *to read*; *meſſen* (*du miſseſt* or *miſt*, *er miſt*) *to measure*; *ſehen* (*du ſieheſt*, *er ſieht*) *to see*; *treten* (*du trittſt*, *er tritt*) IV *to step, tread*; *vergeſſen* (*du vergiſseſt* or *vergiſt*, *er vergiſt*) *to forget*; *ſein* (which has replaced the regular *weſen* except in nouns, as *daſ Schulweſen* *the educational system*, and in part. adjectives, as *abweſend* *absent*, &c.) *to be, war, geweſen*.

a. The perfect participle of *eſſen* was in early N.H.G. *geſſen*, and in contracted form *geſſen*. Later the contracted form prevailed, but still later another *ge* was prefixed to it, as the first *ge* was no longer felt, the form thus becoming *gegeſſen*.

2. Those in *i, ie*, which do not show an interchange in 2nd and 3rd sing.: *bitten* *to ask*, *beg*, *bat*, *gebeten*; *liegen* *to lie*, *lag*, *gelegen*; *ſitzen* *to sit*, *ſaß*, *geſeſſen*.

General Note. (1) The factitives (197. A. *d*) are: *aſen* *to feed* (birds, animals, prisoners), *bait*, *āgen* *to etch, feed* (birds, &c.); *ergāgen* (corruption of *ergetzen*) *to amuse*, lit. *to cause to forget*, factitive of M.H.G. *ergezzen* *to forget*; *legen* *to lay*; *nāhren* (factitive of *neſen*, now only found in the form *geneſen*; see 197. E) *to nourish*, lit. *to cause to recover or remain strong*; *ſegen* *to set*.

(2) *Alzung* and *ſaß* have short *a*, the vowel of the old sing. of the past tense. Except in case of *aſen* verbs no longer show this old gradation, as the sing. vowel was levelled by the pl. It remains, however, in mutated form in the factitives *āgen*, *ſegen*, and in rounded form also *ergāgen*. In the other factitives it has become long, as it stands in an open syllable; see art. 4. *b. Note*, p. 14.

203. VI. Class. Gradation :

Pres. *ä, ā, ē*Past *ū, ü*Perf. Part. *ä, ā*

1. Division. Gradation :

Present (177. II. B, D. *a*)

Past

Perf. Part.

*ä, ā (ä, ā in 2nd and 3rd sing.), ē**ū**ä, ā*

Example : *schlagen* (du *schlägst*, er *schlägt*), *schlug*, *geschlagen* ; *schaffen* (du *schaffst*, er *schafft*), *schuf*, *geschaffen*. The perf. part. always has the same vowel as the infinitive except in case of *haben*. The vowel of the past is always long.

Here belong : *backen* (in early N.H.G. the literary word of the South and still used there) or *backen* (used by Luther and now the common literary word ; du *backst* and now also not infrequently *backst*, er *backt*, *backt*) to *bake*, past tense *buch* (early N.H.G.), now *büf* or *backte*, perf. part. *gebacken* (early N.H.G.), now uniformly *gebacken*, weak, however, throughout in the meanings to *stick*, *cake* ; *fahren* (du *fährst*, er *fährt*) to *drive* ; *fragen* (du *fragst*, also *frāgst* but perhaps less common than a little earlier in the period, er *fragt*, *frāgt*) to *ask*, *fragte*, also *frug*, perf. part. always *gefragt* ; *graben* (du *gräbst*, er *gräbt*) to *dig* ; *heben* (du *hebst*, er *hebt*) to *raise*, in early N.H.G. past *hub*, perf. part. *gehoben* (1 Cor. xv. 26), also sometimes wk. throughout, now usually in Class II except in the past tense where we still not infrequently find alongside the new *hob* the older *hub*, especially in the compound *anheben* to *begin* ; *jagen*¹ (du *jagst*, rarely *jāgst*, er *jagt*, rarely *jāgt*) to *chase*, *hunt*, *jagte*, rarely *jug*, *gejagt*, rarely *gejagen* ; *laden* (du *lādst* or less commonly *lādest*) to *invite* (in this meaning properly wk. and still often so in the present, but usually found str. in the past and now always so in the perf. part.), to *load* (in this meaning str. except in the present tense, where the wk. unmutated forms are sometimes found) ; *mahlen* to *grind*, now entirely wk. except in part. *gemahlen*, in early N.H.G. str., du *māhst*, er *māht*, past *muhl* ; *schaffen* (du *schaffst*, er *schafft*), str. only in the meanings to *create*, *produce*, str. or wk. in the meanings *cause*, *bring about*, wk. in the senses to *procure*, *work*, *command* (in Bavarian dialect), *remove*, *bring*, and all other meanings, earlier in the period and occasionally still strong forms are found with the meanings of the weak verb ; *schlagen* (du *schlägst*, er *schlägt*) to *strike* ; *tragen* (du *trägst*, er *trägt*) to *carry*.

a. The adj. *erhaben* *lofty*, lit. *lifted up*, is the old perf. part. of *erheben*, which has left this group for the II class.

b. The one factitive (197. A. *d*) is *führen* (from *fahren*) to *lead*, *guide*.

2. Division. Gradation :

Present (177. II. B, D. *a*)

Past

Perf. Part.

*ä (ä in 2nd and 3rd sing.), ē**ü**ä*

Example : *wachsen* (du *wächstst* or *wächst*, er *wächst*), *wuchs*, *gewachsen*.

Here belong : in early N.H.G. *stāden* (still in use in S.W. dialects) and more frequently *sta(h)n*, also *stehen* (du *stehst*, er *steht*)

¹ The rare str. forms of *jagen* occur provincially, usually with a different shade of meaning, being used in the derived meanings to *drive rapidly*, *dart*, *chase after*, *drive something before one* : *Die der Polizist die Nummer (des Wagens) merken konnte, jag (shot, drove quickly) der Wengel um die Ecke.*

to stand, the last of which alone survives in the literary language ; past tense *stund* quite common earlier in the period and still used in S.G., elsewhere now *stand*, past subjunctive *stünde* and also quite frequently *stünde* ; *wachsen* (du *wächstest* or *wächst*, er *wächst*) *to grow*, increase ; *waschen* (du *wäschtest* or *wäscht*, er *wäscht*) *to wash*.

a. These few words have drifted away from the first division in the past tense, since the old historic long *u* in that tense has now in large measure yielded to the tendency to shorten vowels before a combination of consonants or the heavy simple sound *sch*. Many, however, still prefer the long vowel in *wuchß* and *wusch*. See 4. 2. A. d. (2), *Note*.

b. The historic past tense of *stehen* is *stumb*. In the sixteenth century this form began to be replaced by *stand* in the sing., the pl. remaining *stunden*, thus following the analogy of *band* — *bunden*. The sing. vowel *a* then levelled the plural.

204. VII. Class. Ablaut:

Present (177. II. B, D. *a*)

Past

Perf. Part.

ä, ā, au, ei, ö, ü

ie, i

ä, ā, au, ei, ö, ü

i. Division. Gradation:

Pres.

Past

Perf. Part.

ä, ā, au, ei, ö, ü

ie

ä, ā, au, ei, ö, ü

Example: *halten* (du *hältst*, er *hält*), *hielt*, *gehalten*. The perf. part. always has the same vowel as the infin.

Here belong: *blasen* (du *bläst*, er *bläst*, rarely du *blasest*, er *bläst*) *to blow*; *braten* (du *brätst*, er *brät*, sometimes du *bratst*, er *bratet*) *to fry*, roast, bake, past sometimes *wk.*; *fallen* (du *fällst*) *to fall*, *fiel*, *gefallen*; *halten* (du *hältst*) *to hold*; *hauen* (early N.H.G. du *heuest*, now *haust*) *to hew*, strike with a sword, switch, whip, slog, chop, &c., *hieb*, *gehauen* in choice language, often *haute* and sometimes *gehaut* in familiar conversation, especially in the last two meanings; *heißen* (du *heißest* or *heißt*, er *heißt*) *to bid*, command, to be called, signify; *lassen* (in S.G. dialect and poetry still found contracted to *lan* as in earlier periods; du *lässest* or *läßt*, er *läßt*) *to let*, cause to, to have (something done); *laufen* (du *läufst*) *to run*, occasionally with the past *loß* and perf. part. *geloßen* after the analogy of *saufen*; *raten* (du *rätst*, sometimes *ratst*) *to advise*, *w. dat.* of person and *acc.* of thing; *rufen* (du *ruffst*) *to call* (somebody in), with *acc.*, *to call out to some one*, with *dat.*, earlier in the period also *wk.*; *schlafen* (du *schläfst*) *to sleep*; *stoßen* (du *stößest* or *stößt*, er *stößt*; in early N.H.G. also du *stoßest*, er *stoßt*) *to thrust*, push, kick. *Salzen to salt*, *spalten to split*, *schroten to grind coarse* have still a str. part. alongside of a *wk.* one, but are otherwise entirely *wk.*: *gesälzen* or now rarely *gesälzt*, *gespalten* or less commonly *gespaltet*, *geschroten* or *geschrotet*. These participles are more frequently str. in the adjective than the verbal use. Entirely *wk.* is *schroten to roll* (casks, &c.). The strong past forms *spielt* and *schriet* occur in early N.H.G.

a. Here also belong: the adj. part. *bescheiden*, once part. of *bescheiden to instruct*, which has left this class for the I class, 2nd division, now felt as an adj. with the general meaning *instructed*, hence *wise*, *sensible*, or more commonly *modest*, as it is felt as belonging to *sich bescheiden to be contented with*; the adj. part. *gefalten* *folded*, still found instead of the more common *wk.* form *gefaltet*; sometimes *geschmalzen* *greased*, *cooked in lard* (perf. part. of the otherwise *wk.* verb *schmalzen*) after the analogy of *gesälzen*, especially in the

expression *weber gefalzen noch gefchmalzen*; in popular language the past tense *fief* from *faufen* to *buy* and the perf. part. *gemalen* from *malen* to *paint*, both of which in choice language are always wk.

b. The factitive is *fällen* to *fell*. Notice that the one factitive of this class, differing from those of the other classes, has the same vowel as the present tense.

c. Nouns: *der Fall* fall, *der Rat* advice, *der Ruf* call, *der Stieb* blow, &c.

2. Division. Gradation: Pres. *ä, ē* Past *ī* Perf. Part. *ä*.

Example: *hängen* (du *hängst*, er *hängt*), *hing*, *gehängen*.

Here belong: *fangen* (du *fängst*, er *fängt*; in early N.H.G. also in the form of *fahen*, du *fehst*, er *fehst*, which still survive in poetry in the forms *fahen*, du *fāht*, er *fāht*) to *catch*, formerly also intrans. to *grasp after* and still occasionally so: *Unseliger, der nur die Angel ist, | mit der der Heide fāht nach deinem Volf* (Ludwig's *Makkabäer*, 2); *gehen* (du *gehst*, er *geht*) to *go*, in early N.H.G. also in the form of *gan* and *gangen*, the former of which still occurs sometimes in poetry, the latter in S.G. dialect, as in *Gangen's* (= *gehen* Sie) *nur ruhig schlafen* (Marriot's *Der geistliche Tod*, chap. 1), past tense *ging*, perf. part. *gegangen*; *hängen* (du *hängst*, er *hängt*; in early N.H.G. also du *hangst*, er *hangt*) or more commonly, but less correctly, *hängen* (du *hängst*, er *hängt*) to *hang* (intrans.), as it has become confounded with the trans. *hängen* (see a).

a. *Hängen* to *hang* is usually a weak transitive. It has besides its wk. past *hängte* also the strong form *hing*, and not infrequently a strong perf. part. *gehängen* instead of *gehängt*, as it has become confounded with the str. trans. *hängen*, a form once common, but now surviving only in the str. forms which serve as collateral forms to the regular forms of the wk. trans. *hängen*. The str. trans. participle is not so rare as often stated by grammarians, but occurs frequently in good literature: *Glauben Sie, daß Sie dann nicht ebenso gut aufgehangen werden wie einer* (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, III, p. 105). *Ihre Röcke hatten sie an Lärchenäste gehangen* (Rosegger's *Frühling*). *An dem schwerfälligen, fugeifüßigen, grünbehangenen Studierrische* (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogel-sangs*, p. 89). *Das Himmelsgewölbe war auch heute durch Wolkfen verhängen* (id., *Die Leute aus dem Walde*, II, chap. i). This last expression is still the usual one.

b. Nouns: *Der Hang* inclination, *der Fang* catch, *der Gang* walk.

c. The vowel of the past tense of this division was originally long, and the spelling *i* has only in comparatively recent years been generally recognized, the older spelling *ie* continuing long after the sound had become short. This shortening of the sound has split this class into two divisions. See also 4. 2. A. d. (2), Note.

205. Verbs formerly Strong. Earlier in the period also the following verbs were strong which have since become weak or have disappeared: *bannen* (VII); *bauen* (VII), sometimes with strong participle (*gebauen*), now weak; *bellen* (III, II), now weak; *reuen* (II), sometimes with strong participle (*geraueu* and *gereuen*), now weak; *brauen* (II), sometimes with strong participle (*gebrauen*), now weak; *brinnen* (III), intransitive, now replaced by the irregular weak trans. *brennen*, now trans. and intrans.; *entbehren* (IV); *gessen* (III), the vowel of the old past tense still surviving in *Nachtigall*; *gleißen* (I); *greinen* (I), sometimes with a str. part., now usually wk.; *heischen* (VII), earlier in the period str. or wk., now wk. with the exception that a str. participle is sometimes

found; *hinken* (III), str. part. sometimes still found in S.G.; *jäten* (V); *fueten* (V); *freißen* (I); *friegen* (I; in early N.H.G. often in M.G. form: *friegen*, past *freig*, part. (ge)friegen, latter replaced by the wk. *friegen*) to get; *nagen* (VI), the part. *genagen* still preserved in pop. language; *schaben* (VI), still with str. part. in S.G.; *schalten* (VII) to shove; *scharren* (III; Josh. vii. 21), now replaced by the wk. *scharren*; *schmiegen* (II); *schneien* (I); *schrumpfen* (III; Job vii. 5), now replaced by the wk. *schrumpfen*; *schweifen* (VII); *seihen* (I; earlier in the period also *seigen*; the form with *g* is especially frequent in the derivative *verseigen*, *versieg*, *versiegen* [Ps. cvii. 33], from the last form of which the wk. *versiegen* developed in the sixteenth century, later entirely supplanting the older *verseigen*) to filter, strain, ooze (early N.H.G., surviving in the wk. *versiegen* to *dry up*, lit. *ooze away*); *spannen* (VII); *walzen* (VII); *waten* (VI). Strong forms of these verbs have also appeared more or less frequently within the present period, but have now disappeared, or survive only in dialect or in an occasional participial form. Although a few weak verbs have assumed strong forms as recorded under the different classes of strong verbs, the general tendency is toward the weak conjugation.

Note. In college slang just the opposite tendency is found, namely, for comical effect weak verbs are given strong forms: *blamo'en* for *blami'ert*, *eingebraugen* for *eingebracht*, *gedeckn* for *gedeckt*, *gemorkn* for *gemerkt*, *geschonkn* for *geschenkt*, *geschumpkn* for *geschimpft*, *gewunfn* for *gewinkt*, *überzegen* for *überzeugt*. Sometimes, however, an author conjugates a weak verb strong in all seriousness, as he has in this point been influenced by his native dialect: *Die kleine Glocke auf der Kirche (wenige Schritte vor mir) ist eingeschnitten* (I; Swabian for *eingeschnitten*) *und hat einen Klang wie Blei* (Mörke in a letter to Friedrich Kauffmann, dated Novem. 1827). *So spießen* (I; Swiss) *wir denn vertraulich* (G. Keller, *Werke*, iii. 86).

206. Conjugation of Strong Verbs in Compounds. Strong verbs when compounded directly with some other word or prefix are conjugated as simple verbs: *erschlagen* (du *erschlägst*) to strike dead, *erschlug*, *erschlagen*. However, if the verb is compounded indirectly (see 217), that is, when it is made from a compound noun the last component element of which is made from a str. verb, it is conjugated wk.: *ratschlagen* to *take counsel* with, made not from *rat* and the str. verb *schlagen*, but from the noun *der Ratschlag* *counsel*, past *ratschlagte*, perf. part. *geratschlagt*; thus also *radebrechen* to *break on the wheel*, derived from the noun *die Radebreche*: *Er radebrecht* (not *radebricht*, although occasionally found in good authors) *das Deutsche* He speaks bad (lit. breaks on the wheel) German. See also 217. *Note 2*.

IRREGULAR CONJUGATION.

207. haben (in popular language contracted to *han*) to *have* is irregular in the pres. and past indic. and also in the past subj., which though a wk. verb suffers mutation. For conjugation see 177. III. a.

a. The reflexive *sich* *gehaben* to *behave one's self*, *find one's self* is entirely regular: *Er gehabt sich wohl* He is well. *Ich gehabt mich besser*. Also *handhaben* to *handle* is entirely regular, as it is formed not from *haben*, but from the substantive *Hand* *habe handle*.

208. The so-called *irregular wk.* verbs have a vowel in the past indic. and perf. part. differing from the vowel in the present, but are otherwise formed regularly according to the wk. conjugation. They fall into two groups:—

1. Infinitive	Past Indic.	Past Subj.	Perf. Part.
brennen to burn	brannte	brennte (brännte)	gebrannt

Here belong: *brennen*; *fennen* to be acquainted with; *nennen* to name, call; *rennen* (see *c*) to *run* (dagger, &c.) *into*, *run* (intrans.), *race*, sometimes in past tense and perf. part. *rennte*, *gerennt* instead of *rannte*, *gerannt*, and regularly so in certain other meanings, see **200.** 2. *b*; *senden* to *send*, past. indic. *sandte* or *sendete*, perf. part. *gesandt* or *gesendet* (see *b*); *wenden* to *turn*, past. indic. *wandte* or *wendete*, perf. part. *gewandt* or *gewendet* (see *b*).

a. Remutation. These verbs had originally an *a* in the pres. tense, which was mutated to *e* by a *j* or *i* that once stood between the stem and the inflectional ending of the present: N.H.G. *legen*, Gothic *lagjan*; N.H.G. *brennen*, Gothic *brannjan*. This *j* is the rule in most wk. verbs in Gothic. It disappeared early in O.H.G., but its effects can still be seen as in the preceding examples in the mutated vowel of the stem. The connecting vowel *i* that once stood between the stem and the inflectional ending in the past indic. and perfect participle of wk. verbs was in O.H.G. in certain verbs syncopated so that the original vowel of the stem was not here affected by the *i* as in the present tense: (*a*) *leggen*, *legita*, *gilegit*, but (*b*) *brennen*, *branta*, *gibrant*, also *gibrennit*. Most wk. verbs now retain, according to *a*, the mutated vowel throughout, only the few words in the above list now following *b*. In early N.H.G., however, the number in the latter class was greater: *setzen*, *sagte*, *gesagt*, also *geseget*, now *setzen*, *setzte*, *gesetzt*. A few fossilized adjective participles still show a perf. part. form according to *b*: *durchlaucht* and *erlaucht* from *leuchten*; *gebacht* from *besen*; *gelahrt* (now only used in archaic, solemn, or comic style) from *lehren*, which once had sometimes the incorrectly formed parts *lëren*, *lärte*, *gelärt*, instead of *lëren*, *lërte*, *gelërt*; *getroßt* from *trösten*; *mißgestalt*, *ungestalt*, and *wohlgestalt* from *stellen*, &c. This return to the original stem-vowel in the past indic. and perf. part. may be called *remutation*. The past subjunctive also usually showed the original vowel in M.H.G., but this is now uniformly mutated (usually indicated by *e* instead of *ä* to bring the stem into conformity with that of the infinitive), and thus there is a difference of vowel here between the past indic. and subj., which is quite rare in wk. verbs.

b. Earlier the forms *sandte*, *wandte*, and *gesandt*, *gewandt* were more common than the mutated forms *sendete*, *wendete*, and *gesendet*, *gewendet*. At present, however, both forms can be quite freely used except in certain expressions where the newer mutated or the older unmutated forms have become fixed. Thus we say *ein gewendeter* (renovated, lit. turned) [not now *gewandter*] *Reich*. The old forms are especially firm in the words *Gesandter* *ambassador*, *gewandt* *skilful*, *clever*, *bewandt* *such*, *verwandt* *related*.

c. *Rennen* is an intensive and violent *laufen*: *Er läuft schnell, langsam* *He is running fast, slowly*, but *Er rennt aus Leibeskräften* *He is running with all his might*, and *Er rannte wider einen Stein* *He ran against a stone*. *Laufen* is thus the more common word, and has a broader meaning, and is usually used here, except where, as just mentioned, the action is to be especially marked as an unusually intensive or violent one, or the reference is to liquids. In the latter meaning *rennen* is not used at all, but is replaced by *rinnen* to *flow*, *fließen* to *flow*, *run*, and *laufen* to *run*, *flow*. *Rinnen* usually refers to a small stream or a *weak*, gentle flow, *fließen* to a *steady*, full flow, *laufen* to a *rapid*, full flow, all of which, however, sometimes approach one another closely in meaning.

2. Infinitive	Past Indic.	Past Subj.	Perf. Part.
bringen to bring	brächte	brächte	gebracht
denken to think	dächte	dächte	gedacht
dünken to seem	{ dünkte deuchte (däuchte)	{ dünkte deuchte (däuchte)	{ gedünkt gedeucht

a. In early N.H.G. we find the forms *dünken*, *dunfen* (now obsolete), *es daucht* (after the analogy of the past *dauchte*; now obs.), past *dauchte* (now obs.), subj. *deuchte*, perf. part. *gedaucht* (now obs.). The present tense forms *dünken* and *dunfen* spread to the past and perf. part.: *dünfte* (now very common) or *dunfte* (now obs.), *gedünkt* (now very common) or *gedunkt* (now obs.). The form of the very common past subj. *deuchte* spread to the present tense: *es deucht* (a little earlier in the period very common and still not infrequent) or *deuchtet* (now rare), with the infinitive *deuchten* (now rare). This new infinitive produced the new past *deuchtete* (now rare). The new present tense form *deucht* transformed the original past indic. *dauchte* and perf. part. *gedaucht* into *deuchte*, *gedeucht*. The grammarians usually recommend the forms given in 2, above. The tendency to-day is to level: *dünfen*, *dünfte*, *gedünkt*.

209. The verb *fiegen* to *get* is inflected regularly in school books and the literary language, but usually in the colloquial language of the North *i* becomes *i* in the 2nd and 3rd pers. sing. of the present tense and throughout the past tense and also in the perf. part.: *ich friege*, *du friegst* (pro. *frīcht*), *er friegt* (pro. *frīcht*), *ich friegte* (pro. *frīchte*), *gefriegt* (pro. *gefricht*). See **205**.

210. The verb *tun* to *do* is very irregular: present *ich tue*, *du tust*, *er tut*, *wir tun*, *ihr tut*, *sie tun*. The subjunctive present is regular. The past indicative is *tat*, subjunctive *täte*, perfect participle *getan*.

a. In early N.H.G. and still in poetic or humorous language the past tense forms *tāt* (same as M.H.G. *tēt* and hence at present misspelled), pl. *tāten*, are often used instead of the usual *tat*, pl. *taten*, at present, however, only when employed pleonastically in connection with a following verb (see **185**. B. I. 2. *e.* (2)): *Und die Kinder Israel thaten alles wie der Herr Mose gebeten hatte* (Exodus xxxix. 32). *Er tāt nur spöttisch um sich blicken* (Uhland) = *Er blidte nur spöttisch um sich*.

Note. In M.H.G. the past tense was *tēt(e)* in the sing. and *tāten* in the plural. Later in the literary language the plural vowel passed over into the singular. Alongside of these forms we find, as described above, the forms *tāt*, pl. *tāten*, which have resulted from the levelling of the plural by the singular.

211. For the irregular *werden* see **177**. III. *c*; other irregularities in str. verbs under the gradating groups, **198–206**.

PAST-PRESENT VERBS.

212. I. Among the most irregular verbs are the Past-Present verbs. Their present tense though pres. in meaning has the form of the past tense of str. verbs and even to-day preserves the peculiarities of the mediaeval past tense better than any other word except *werden*. These evident marks of the past tense are: *a.* The 1st and 3rd pers. sing. are alike. *b.* The sing. and pl. vowels are different as was once the rule for the past tense, and still show in part the gradation classes to which they once belonged. *c.* The vowel of the subj. is the mutated vowel of the pl. indic. which was

once the rule for the past subj., as can still be seen in the past subj. of *werden* (past subjunctive *ich würde*, past indicative *ich ward*, pl. *wir wurden*). The mutated forms of the present indicative plural, as *wir müssen, dürfen, &c.*, are in fact subjunctive forms, as the latter mood has levelled here the former. These mutated forms have become established in the infinitive wherever they are found in the indicative: *dürfen* (infin.), *wir dürfen, &c.* After the old past had come to be used as a present the weak past was employed to express past time.

2. These verbs are: *wissen to know, know how to, be able to*, and the six auxiliaries of mood: *dürfen to be allowed; können to be able (can); mögen to like, to desire to* (also often expressing a possibility or a concession = *may*); *müssen to be compelled, to have to (must)*; *sollen expressed in English by shall, ought to, am (is) to, is said to, &c.*; *wollen (see g) to be willing to, to be about to, to desire to, &c.* They are inflected as follows:

Present Indicative.

ich weiß	darf	kann	mag	muß	soll	will
du weißt	darfst	kannst	magst	mußt	sollst	willst
er weiß	darf	kann	mag	muß	soll	will
wir wissen	dürfen	können	mögen	müssen	sollen	wollen
ihr wißt	dürft	könnt	mögt	müßt	sollt	wollt
sie wissen	dürfen	können	mögen	müssen	sollen	wollen

Present Subjunctive.

ich wisse	dürfe	könne	möge	müsse	solle	wolle
du wissest	dürfest	könneest	mögest	müssest	sollest	wollest
er wisse	dürfe	könne	möge	müsse	solle	wolle
wir wissen	dürfen	können	mögen	müssen	sollen	wollen
ihr wisset	dürfet	könnet	möget	müisset	solltet	wolltet
sie wissen	dürfen	können	mögen	müssen	sollen	wollen

Past Indicative.

ich wußte, durfte, konnte, mochte, mußte, sollte, wollte.

Past Subjunctive.

ich wüßte, dürfte, könnte, möchte, müßte, sollte, wollte.

Perfect Participle.

gewußt, gedurft, gekonnt, gemocht, gemußt, gesollt, gewollt.

The participle of *müssen* is occasionally *gemüßt*: *Und wer von der Liebsten scheiden gemüßt* (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Werners *Lieder aus Welschland*, XII).

The compound tenses are formed regularly (see also e):

Pres. Perfect.	ich habe gewußt, gedurft, gekonnt, gemocht, &c. ich habe (kommen) dürfen, können, &c. (but not wissen; see b).
Past Perfect.	ich hatte gewußt, gedurft, gekonnt, gemocht, &c. ich hatte (kommen) dürfen, können, mögen, &c.
Future.	ich werde wissen, dürfen, können, mögen, &c.
Future Perfect.	ich werde gewußt haben, gedurft haben, &c. ich werde haben (kommen) dürfen, können, &c.
Pres. Conditional.	ich würde wissen, dürfen, können, mögen, &c.
Perf. Conditional.	ich würde gewußt haben, gedurft haben, &c. ich würde haben (kommen) dürfen, können, &c., or ich hätte (kommen) dürfen, können, &c.

a. The imperatives and present participles are either deficient or rarely used. Wissen and wollen alone have an imperative: *weise*, &c., *wolle*, &c. In popular language the imperative *will* (instead of *wolle*) is heard and is also found in literature (in Auerbach, Grillparzer).

The participles are formed regularly: *wissend*, *könnend*, &c. With the exception of the participle of *wissen*, however, these forms are rarely found. The present participles of the modal auxiliaries are only used in connection with a dependent infinitive, as illustrated in 184. f, and in the case of a few derivatives and compounds, in the most part adjectives, as *bedürftend requiring*, *in need of*, *vermögend wealthy*, *wohlvollend well-wishing*. Also the participial substantive *der Wollende the one that wills* is used.

b. The modal auxiliaries (not including *wissen*) do not use the weak perf. participle given above when an infinitive depends upon them in a compound tense, but a strong participle without *ge-*, in form exactly like the infinitive, for which construction see 178. 2. B. a and Note 1 thereunder. Thus the construction of *wissen* differs from that of the other past-present verbs: *Er hat zu antworten gewußt He knew how to answer*, but *Er hat antworten können He was able to answer*.

Note. After the analogy of *können*, *wissen* also has sometimes a perfect participle in the form of an infinitive, when an infinitive depends upon it. *Die ausgezeichneten Beziehungen, welche die vorige Regierung zwischen Frankreich und den auswärtigen Mächten hat herzustellen wissen* (instead of *herzustellen gewußt hat*), *National-Zeitung*, 24, 244. See 178. 2. B. a, and Note 1 thereunder.

c. Note that *wissen* and *vermögen* (see 185. B. I. 2. a. Note) are the only past-present verbs that require *zu* before the dependent infin.: *Er weiß sich nicht zu halten He is not able to contain himself*, but *Er muß arbeiten He has to work*. However, the infinitive without *zu* is also used after *wissen*, but with a different meaning; see 185. B. I. 2. d.

d. In early N.H.G. and as late as the classical period the forms *du selbst* and *willst* are found, now always *du selbst*, *willst*. Cf. Eng. *shalt*, *wilt*. In early N.H.G. also other forms occur, which have since disappeared in the literary language: *durfen* and *derfen* for *dürfen*, *borfte* and *dörfte* for *durfte* and *dürfte*; *künnen* for *können*, *funde*, *funte*, or *funt* for *konnte*; *mügen* for *mögen*; *wellen* and *wöllten* for *wollen*.

e. In an earlier period of the language the German, like the English of the present day, could not form a perf. participle from the modal auxiliaries. The older German had to express the pres. perfect by putting the dependent infinitive into the perfect tense, and the past perfect by placing the past indic. of the auxiliary before the perfect infinitive of the dependent verb: *ich kan getragen haben*, now *ich habe tragen können*; *ich kunde getragen haben*, now *ich hatte tragen können*; *ich künde getragen haben*, now *ich hätte tragen können*. When the new forms were introduced the old forms did not drop out, but remained, often, however, with a new shade of meaning: *Er kann*

gesprochen haben *He may have spoken*, but *Er hat sprechen können He has been able to speak*. *Er konnte schon gesprochen haben It was possible that (at that time) he had already spoken*, but *Er hatte schon sprechen können He had already been able to speak*. *Er könnte gesprochen haben He might possibly have spoken*, but *Er hätte sprechen können He would have been able to speak*. The English-speaking student must be cautious here, as there are pitfalls for him at almost every step. We must not translate *He should have done it* literally by *Er sollte es getan haben*, as the German may mean: *He was said to have done it*. The German form should be *Er hätte es tun sollen*. *Er könnte gekommen sein* corresponds to the English *He could have come* only in the sense that *it is a possibility that he has come*. If we mean that *it would have lain in his power to come* we must say *Er hätte kommen können*. Occasionally the old and new constructions are used without differentiation: *Ich sollte vorsichtiger gewesen sein*, or more commonly *Ich hätte vorsichtiger sein sollen*.

f. In early N.H.G. there were two other past-present verbs:

(1) *Tügen* (now *taugen*, entirely wk.) with the following principal parts: (pres.) *ich taug*, *er taug*, *wir tügen*; past *ich tüchte*, (subj.) *tüchte*, (ge)tücht. Ex.: *Mose sprach | Das taug nicht | das wir also thun (Exodus viii. 26)*. Derivatives are *tüchtig* and *Tugend*.

(2) *Thüren* (now obs.) *to dare* (same word as Ger. *thüren*) with the following principal parts: *ich thar*, *er thar*, *wir thüren*, past *ich thürste*. Later it was replaced by *dürfen*, which in turn has been replaced in this meaning by *wagen* and *sich unterstehen*.

g. From the standpoint of historical grammar *wollen* is not a past-present verb. It is, however, now justly classed here upon the basis of its present forms, which are those of past-present verbs. The present indicative was originally a past subjunctive, which formerly had the force of the past subjunctive of cautious statement (see 169. 2. A. (1). c) as used to-day. Thus this original past subjunctive had the meaning of *ich wünschte wohl*. Later it took on indic. force and the forms of past-present verbs.

SPECIAL USES OF THE MODAL AUXILIARIES.

213. 1. Dürfen. a. A permission from some one to do something, or a right, cause, or liberty to so do, in so far as there is nothing in the dictate of circumstances or moral obligation or any authority to restrain or forbid: *Du darfst nicht hingehen* You are not allowed to go there. *Gefangene dürfen mit niemand verkehren* Prisoners are not allowed to associate with anybody. *Jedermann darf Waffen tragen* Everybody is permitted to carry arms. *Darf ich darauf rechnen, Sie morgen bei mir zu sehen?* *Er darf sich darüber nicht wundern* He must not (has no right, cause to) wonder at it. *Wir dürfen unsere Pflichten nicht vergessen* We should not forget our duties. *Wir dürfen es schon unseres Rufes wegen nicht tun* We cannot do this out of consideration for our reputation, *to say nothing about other things* (all in *schon*). This leads to the very frequent use of *dürfen* in negative sentences corresponding to *müssen* in positive form: *Ihr dürft nicht laut schreien!* Children, you must not scream out loud. The past subjunctive softens the force of the statement: *Bald dürftest ich nicht!* (Lessing's *Minna*, 1, 2) I almost ought not to! Earlier in the period, and sometimes still, *müssen* is used in negative sentences: *Armes, braves Weib!* *Ich muß nicht vergessen, den Bettel zu vernichten* (id., *Minna*, 1, 7). See also 4. c, below.

b. *Need only to, need but*: *Er darf nur winken, so sind wir da* He need but make a sign and we shall be there. *Sie dürfen nur klingeln* You need only to ring. *Sie dürfen nur befehlen* You need only to speak, to command.

c. The past subj. (potential; see 169. 2. A. (1). c) is much used to state in a modest way something that one is pretty sure is or will be true: *Jetzt dürfte es zu spät sein* Now it is probably too late. *Es dürfte ein Leichtes sein* It would probably be an easy matter.

Note. Synonymous with *dürfen* in this connection are *können* and *mögen* with distinct shades of difference. *Können* denotes a mere possibility, *mögen* a probability or likelihood, *dürfen* a rather positive assertion, but stated politely: *Man könnte Sie fragen* One might question you. *Man möchte Sie fragen* You will likely be questioned. *Man dürfte Sie fragen* I warn you, you will be questioned.

d. Rarer meanings occur: (1) In early N.H.G. *to need*, now replaced by *bedürfen*: *Die Gesunden dürffen des Arztes nicht* (Luke v. 31). This is the original meaning, and still survives in *dürftig needy*, *bedürfen to need*, *Bedürfnis need*. (2) In early N.H.G. and still in the classical period in negative sentences and questions *to need*, *have occasion for*, now replaced by *brauchen*: *Wer mir dürfen Sie sich Ihres Unglücks nicht schämen* (Lessing's *Minna*, 1, 6). (3) In early N.H.G. it replaced in part the obsolescent *thüren* (see 212. 2. f. [2]) *to dare*: *Wie habt jr das thun dürfen* (Gen. xlv. 15). Luther retained *thüren* in a large number of cases, but the later revisions substituted *dürfen*. Compare Luther's translation of Matt. xxii. 46 with a revised edition. In our own day *dürfen* rarely occurs in this meaning, but is replaced here by *wagen* and *sich unterstehen*.

2. **Können.** A. Ability or power: *Er kann gut reiten* He can ride well. *Der Kranke kann nicht gehen*.

Note. In this sense alone is *vermögen* synonymous with *können*, only differing from it in being stronger and in requiring *zu* with the infin.: *Er war zu schwach, er vermochte nicht die Mitteilung zu Ende zu hören*, or *er konnte die Mitteilung nicht zu Ende hören*. In early N.H.G. the infin. depending upon *vermögen* is also without *zu*.

a. Often, cannot bear to: *Sie kann kein Blut sehen*.

b. Notice the idiomatic use of nicht umhin können = müssen, requiring *zu* before the dependent infin.: *Er konnte nicht umhin zu lächeln* He could not help smiling.

B. *Possibility* in the broad sense, that which is contingent upon circumstances, and often *probability* and in this sense synonymous with *mögen* in A, but more common than the latter in the pres. tense and not so common in the past: *Der Brief kam vor Dienstag nicht dert sein*. *Er kann jeden Augenblick da sein*. *Ich glaub', es kann wohl heute noch schneien*. *Verdamme ihn nicht, er kann (may) noch unschuldig sein*. *Sie können (may) mich morgen erwarten*.

Note. Observe the difference in meaning between the pres. of *können* with the perf. infin. and the pres. perf. of *können*: *Er kann den Brief geschrieben haben* He may have written the letter. *Er hat den Brief schreiben können* He has been able to write the letter. Notice also the difference between *Er könnte es getan haben* *He might have done it* (i.e. it is possible that he has done it) and *Er hätte es tun können* *He would have been able to do it*.

C. *Permission*, arising from the idea that something can be done, as there are no hindrances in the way: *Meinetwegen kann er kommen* As far as I am concerned he may come. *Von acht bis neun Uhr können wir noch in dem Garten ein wenig spazieren gehen*. *Sie können jetzt gehen*.

D. It often contains in polite form *instructions, directions, or a request*: *Ich habe jetzt nicht Zeit für euch, ihr könnt aber morgen wieder einmal nachfragen* I have not time for you to-day, but you might inquire again to-morrow. *Du könntest (or in still stronger language fannst) mir eigentlich das lästige Geschäft abnehmen* I think you might take this troublesome piece of business off my hands. It sometimes contains a reproach: *Du fannst (or könntest) immer auch einmal mit angreifen!* I think you might take a hold and help us a little bit! *Das fannst du selber machen!* I think you might do that yourself!

E. Good grounds or reasons or good opportunity for an action: *Darauf können Sie stolz sein* You can well be proud of that. *Kann (or darf) ich nun anfangen?* Should I begin now? (Are things favorable for action?)

F. Also used as an independent transitive verb with noun or pronoun as object in the sense of *to know* or *understand thoroughly, to be at home in*:

Er kann das Lied auswendig He knows the song by heart. Der kann etwas That fellow understands his business. Können Sie Deutsch? Can you speak German? Der Schüler kann seine Vokabeln The pupil knows his vocabulary. Können Sie Klavier? Can you play upon the piano? Er kann sehr gut Französisch.

Note 1. Here belongs the expression Was kann ich dafür? How can I help it, how can I be blamed for it? It has here changed the original idea of *being able to do something for* to that of *blame for not doing something*. Thus also: Er kann nicht dafür It is not his fault. Was kann sie für ihre Mutter?! (Franz's *Der Gott des alten Doktors*, p. 142) How can she be held responsible for her mother being what she is?!

Note 2. Distinguish carefully between können to know something thoroughly, to know by heart, to have a fair degree of skill or proficiency in something, wissen to know facts, kennen to know or be acquainted with persons or also those things which like persons can be recognized by certain characteristics: Sie können Deutsch They can speak German. Die können ihre Sache They understand thoroughly the matter they have in hand. Er kann das Einmaleins He knows by heart the multiplication table. Ich weiß, wo er wohnt I know where he lives. Ich weiß sein Haus I know where his house is. Ich kenne ihn gut I know him well. Ich kenne sein Haus I am acquainted with the outside or inside or both outside and inside arrangements of his house. Das Kind kennt die Buchstaben noch nicht The child cannot distinguish the letters yet. Ich kenne diese Melodie This tune is familiar to me. Das kennt man schon! We know all about that, i. e. we have had experience in that matter.

G. Also as an intransitive verb in the sense of *to have the power, skill*: „Du willst also?“ „Rach' mich können, so will ich“ (Goethe). Um zu können, mußt du in jedem Fall tun, um zu wissen, darfst du dich in vielen Fällen nur leidend verhalten (Pestalozzi).

3. **Mögen.** A. Probability, plausibility, that which rests with more or less probability on facts, but which is after all only supposition, conjecture (see können, B): Es ist unrecht, daß er nicht geantwortet hat, aber er mag krank sein It is not right that he has not answered, but it may be that he is sick. Er hat es keinem gesagt, er mag's wohl geheim halten wollen He has told no one, he may probably desire to keep it a secret. Das mag wohl sein That may be. Es mag jetzt zwölf sein It may be 12 o'clock. Sie möchte fühlen, daß sie mir unrecht getan She probably felt that she had done me injustice. Es möchte wohl Mitternacht sein It might have been about midnight. Er mag das gesagt haben He may possibly have said that.

a. It is much used in the past subjunctive (potential) to state modestly something as probable, plausible (see also dürfen, c. *Note*): Es möchte wohl besser sein, wenn wir es unterließen It would probably be better if we did not do it. Das möchte schwer zu beweisen sein That might be hard to prove. Daraus möchte wohl nichts werden That is likely enough to fail.

B. To indicate that something is granted, allowed, at least that no objection will be raised on the part of the speaker, and from this arises the idea of concession in general, which is much used in subordinate concessive clauses: Das mag er immerhin tun, was kümmert's mich? Let him do it, what matters it to me? Mögen die Leute reden, was sie wollen Let people say what they will. In subordinate clause: Was ich auch tun mag, so ist es dir nicht recht No matter what I do, I can't satisfy you.

C. Akin to the preceding is the idea of *inclination, liking*, in this meaning also used as an independent transitive verb with a noun or pronoun as object: Ich mag ihn jetzt nicht sehen I do not care to see him now. As a transitive verb: Ich mag diese Radishes nicht. Vielleicht mögen Sie lieber Gurken I do not like these radishes. Perhaps you like cucumbers better. Mögen is often strengthened by the adverb gern: Ich habe nie gern tanzen mögen I never liked to dance.

a. The subjunctive is much used in wishes in independent clauses with different meaning according as present or past tense is employed (168. I., 1. B, and 169. I. A). The present subjunctive is also used in mild commands

direct and indirect; see 177. I. B. a; 171. 4. a. The present indicative and subjunctive are used in warnings and menaces: *Er mag nur aufpassen, sonst passiert ein Unglück* He should be on the look-out or some misfortune will happen. *Er möge sich hüten, mich zu reizen* Let him beware of provoking me.

b. The subjunctive of *mögen* is in indirect discourse sometimes used instead of the subjunctive of the simple verb, especially after verbs of wishing, fearing, doubting: *Wir wünschten, daß er komme* or *kommen möge*.

c. The past and past perfect subjunctive (potential), the former with *present*, the latter with *past* force, differ from the indicative in meaning in that not the mere record of a strongly pronounced desire or a habitual inclination is made, but especial attention is called to that which at the time and under the circumstances the subject *feels inclined* or *would like* to do: *Fast möchte ich weinen* I almost feel like crying. *Ich möchte spazieren gehen* I should like to go out walking. *Ich hätte es ihm nicht sagen mögen* I should not have liked to tell it to him. *Da hätte er in den Boden sinken mögen* Then he felt as though he would like to sink through the floor.

The subjunctive of modest statement (169. 1. A. 3rd par.) is much used to state a wish modestly: *Ich möchte Sie um ein Stückchen Hammelschlegel bitten, nur zum Versuchen* I will thank you for a small piece of the leg of mutton, just to try it.

D. Its oldest meaning, that of *power* and *ability*, it has given over to *vermögen* in ordinary prose, but this meaning can still be found in elevated diction: *O lieb', so lang du lieben kannst* (can find an opportunity)! *O lieb', so lang du lieben magst* (are able)! (Freiligrath). This meaning occurs frequently still in the noun (die) *Macht* *might* and the adj. *möglich* *possible*, which have been derived from it.

a. After the analogy of *vermögen* (see 2, Note, above) the infinitive with *zu* is in a few rather rare instances used here with *mögen* instead of the simple infinitive, especially when the infinitive precedes the auxiliary: *Die Gefahr von ihr zu wenden magst du ganz allein* (Goethe's *Die natürliche Tochter*, 2, 1).

4. **Müssen.** a. *Necessity* in the broad sense, either physical compulsion or that constraint which is imposed by the stress of circumstances, or lies in the very nature of things, or that which appears to the mind as necessary, appropriate, or belonging to the natural order of things, hence corresponding to the English words *must*, *have to*, *obliged to*, *ought to*, *need to*: *Das Kind mußte zu Bette gehen* The child had to go to bed. *Er handelt wie er muß* He acts as he ought to do under the circumstances. *Du kommst nicht mit, denn du hast keine Kleider und kannst nicht tanzen*; *wir mußten uns deiner schämen* (we should indeed under the circumstances have to feel ashamed of you). *Kinder müssen bescheiden sein* In the natural order of things children ought to be modest. *Offi* (name), *eigentlich hättest du doch wohl Kunstreiterin werden müssen* (ought). *Mußt du denn alles wissen?* Do you need to know everything? Also translated in various other ways: *Wir mußten uns freuen* We could not but rejoice. *Ich mußte lachen* I could not help laughing. It is much used in commands; see 177. I. B. a.

It often denotes a logical or inferred necessity: *Ihr Gesicht war regelmäßig und der Ausdruck desselben verständig*; *sie mußte in ihrer Jugend schön gewesen sein* She must have been, &c. (Besicht ihn [i. e. den Brief]) *Wahrhaftig, er ist erbrochen*. *Wer muß ihn denn erbrechen haben?* (Lessing's *Minna*, 3, 10) Somebody must have broken it open, who could it be?

Note. Observe the difference of meaning between the pres. of *müssen* with the perf. infin. and the perf. tense of *müssen*: *Er muß vorbeigegangen sein* He must have passed by, but *Er hat vorbeigehen müssen* He was compelled to pass by.

b. Often found with a force difficult to reproduce in English, conveying the idea that the circumstance or happening in question is untoward, unfortunate, resulting in discomfiture to the person in question, sometimes translated by *unfortunately to happen to*, *it must needs be*: *Gerade ihn mußte ich treffen!* Whom

should I unfortunately happen to meet but him! Und ich mußte so fern sein! And bad luck would have it that I just happened to be so far away! Mein Hund war ohne Maulkorb hinausgelaufen. Nun mußte (as bad luck would have it, there happened to) auch gerade ein Polizist daher kommen. Es mus ja ergebnis fernen | doch weh dem Menschen | durch welchen ergebnis fempft (Matt. xviii. 7).

c. An older meaning to be *permitted*, *ought*, is still in the classical period found in negative sentences, instead of dürfen, just as in English: Ich muß nicht vergessen, den Bettel zu vernichten (Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm* 1, 7) I must not forget to destroy the trifle. It is occasionally found in our own time: „Ach," sagte Elisabeth „das weiß ich ja auswendig; du mußt auch nicht immer daselbe erzählen" (Storm's *Immensee*, Die Kinder). It is now in large measure replaced here by dürfen (see this, 1. a).

This old meaning of müssen comes close to the original one, to *find one's self in a situation to, have opportunity to, be free to, have occasion to*. Also the use in b approaches this sense with the additional idea that the result is unpleasant to the party in question. Later, as in a, the idea arose that the situation in which the subject finds himself is forced upon him, and that he has to act, not in accordance with his wishes, but under the stress of circumstances. The original meaning of müssen occurs not infrequently in early N.H.G. in different stages of developments. In optative sentences the original force is still found in the classical period: So müsse (now möge) mir Gott helfen (Schiller). This use is still quite common in connexion with denn: Das werde ich nie glauben, er müßte es mir denn selbst sagen. For fuller explanation of this optative see 168. I. 2. C. b. It is also quite commonly found here in accordance with a, above, where the wisher expresses the desire that somebody may be forced to suffer something: Müße der elend umkommen, dem je besser von dir begegnet würde als mir (P. Heyse's *L'Arrabbiata*). Wären wir Bettler! Müßten wir barfuß durch die Frühlingsnacht wandern! (R. Huch's *Vita somnium breve*, I, p. 7).

The related noun Muße *leisure* has retained more of the original meaning than the verb, and has developed in quite a different direction.

d. It is also used as an intransitive verb in the sense of *to suffer compulsion*: Kein Mensch muß (according to c) müssen (Lessing's *Nathan*, 1, 3) No one should suffer compulsion. Alle andere Dinge müssen, der Mensch ist das Wesen, welches will (Schiller, 10, 214).

5. **Sollen** expresses throughout all its varied meanings a moral constraint, indicating that that which is to be done does not proceed from the will of the person represented as the subject of the verb, but from some other person, or some other source. The chief uses are:

a. The will of a certain definite person is to be carried out: Du sollst nicht stehlen Thou shalt not steal (God's will). The father says to John: Du sollst fleißig sein I want you to be diligent. In the 3rd person the expression of will is an indirect one to be transmitted by a third party: Er soll gleich kommen Tell him that he is to come at once. Hence its use in the imperative; see 177. I. B. a. Also in toasts: Gugler (stoßen an): Die Bauernstudenten sollen leben! Proßt! (Schönherr's *Sonnwendtag*, p. 21).

Note. In this meaning the past and past perfect tenses of the subjunctive (potential) are used, the former with *present* force, the latter with *past* force, to state that something *ought* to be done or *ought* to have been done if the will or judgement of the speaker were consulted: Die Gesellschaft sollte die Kunst fördern Society ought to promote art. Du solltest dich lieber in Acht nehmen You had better take care. Er hätte sich verteidigen sollen He ought to have defended himself.

b. In a figurative sense it often means the will or dictate of circumstances or fate, to be *destined to, to have to, to turn out that, will* (expressing not mere futurity, but indicating that something *will* come about because it *must* according to the nature of the case and the probabilities): Darin sollte er sich täuschen In that he was destined to be disappointed. Der Mann, der das kann,

soll erst noch geboren werden The man who does that has yet to be born. So laß uns überlegen, wie du den Irrtum ungeschöen machen sollst how you should or will have to (dictate of circumstances), &c. Ich hoffe noch immer, die Nachricht soll sich nicht bestätigen I am still hoping that it will turn out that the news will not be confirmed. Ich denke, das soll noch kommen I think that will yet come about.

Note. In this use the potential subjunctive (with the same use of tenses as stated in the Note under *a*, above) is much employed (1) to represent something as possible but as contingent upon the caprice of circumstances, especially in conditional clauses where it is translated by our *should, were to*: Wenn es regnen sollte, werde ich nicht kommen If it should rain I shall not come; (2) interrogatively to express a doubting or deliberative conjecture: Sollte Karl das getan haben? Can it be that Carl has done that? Sollte das wahr sein? Can that be true? Sollte er mein Schicksal schon erfahren haben? Can it be that he has already learned of my fate? Sollte dahinter vielleicht ein Geheimnis stecken? I wonder if there is a secret back of that!

c. Used in threats indicating that the speaker is willing for some one to do something if he dares: Sie sollen sich nur regen, wenn sie's wagen! Just let them budge if they dare!

d. It may denote the will of the public, hence in general the constraint of custom, law, &c.: Die Kinder sollen ihren Eltern gehorchen Children ought to obey their parents. Here *sollen* can often be translated by *it is to be expected that*: Wie sollte er sich rühren, wo vielleicht nur der Galgen zu gewinnen stand! How was it to be expected that he should bestir himself there where perhaps only the gallows could be gained? Here *sollen* can also be translated by *is it to be tolerated*: „Ein Fremdling,“ sprachen sie unter einander, „soll hierher kommen nach Bagdad, uns Ruhm, Ehre und Sieg zu entreißen?“

e. The idea of willing a thing leads to planning its accomplishment, *to be intended to, to be apt to*: Worte waren es nur, die ich sprach; sie sollten vor euch nur meine Gefühle verdecken It was only empty words that I spoke; they were intended to conceal my feelings from you. Soll das ein Scherz sein? Is that intended as a joke? Was soll das? What is that for? Versuchen Sie diesen Kehl, er soll (is apt to) Ihnen schmecken.

f. The idea of willing a thing or determining that it shall be done leads to that of promising, assuring it, *shall*: Sie sollen es morgen haben You shall have it to-morrow. Der ehrliche Finder soll belohnt werden The honest finder shall be rewarded. Es soll geschehen It shall be done. In Berlin soll man lange suchen, bis man unter den hiesigen Gelehrten einen Mann von solcher Bildung findet I assure you that you will hunt a long time in Berlin before you will find among the scholars of the city a man of such culture.

g. It often denotes the will of different parties, hence in general an agreement or arrangement, or the decision of some proper authority: Ich soll zehn tausend Mark das Jahr erhalten I am to receive ten thousand marks a year. Sie sollen warten The arrangement is that you are to wait. Die Brücke soll neu gebaut werden The bridge is to be rebuilt. Er soll den Gesandten begleiten He is appointed to accompany the ambassador.

Note. In this meaning, if noch is added, it is implied that a promise or arrangement has been broken and probably will not be fulfilled: Er soll noch wiederkommen He has never turned up.

h. Much used in questions to ascertain the will or idea of the person addressed: Sollen wir jetzt nach Hause gehen? Shall we go home now? Was soll ich Ihnen verlegen? What shall I help you to? (at the table).

i. That which report will have something to be, *it is said*: Dr. Faust soll in Erfurt gelebt haben Dr. Faust is said to have lived in Erfurt. Sieben Sträflinge sollen entkommen sein Seven convicts are said to have escaped.

j. Used to suppose a case for sake of argument: Alfred der Große soll London erbaut haben. Wie erklären Sie dann daß die Römer die Stadt schon vor

Christi Geburt kannten? Well! We'll say that you are right, and that Alfred the Great built London. How do you explain the fact then that the Romans were familiar with the city even before the birth of Christ?

k. Used earlier in the period as a trans. verb with the force of *schulden to owe*: Wer mir fünfzig Gulden soll (Logau). This old meaning survives in *Soll und Haben credit and debit*.

6. **Wollen** differs from *sollen* in that it expresses *the will or desire of the subject*, while *sollen* even though in the first person expresses *the will of another*: Ich will gehen *I desire, want to go*, but Ich soll gehen *I am ordered to go*. It is used in many idiomatic expressions:

a. Figuratively: Blumen wollen gepflegt sein *Flowers ought (lit. want) to be tended*. Auch das wollte beachtet sein *Also that needed to be considered*. Aber wie glaubst du, daß mir, dem flotten, blutjungen Kavallerieoffizier, zu Mute war, als ich eines Morgens beim Erwachen mich besann, daß ich in der Nacht das Sämmchen von neunzigtausend Talern verspielt hatte, das binnen vierundzwanzig Stunden bezahlt sein wollte (Sudermann's *Die Ehre*, I, 12) *that had to be paid*, &c. Notice the idiomatic expressions: das will sagen *that is to say, that means*, das will nicht viel sagen *that doesn't mean much, doesn't amount to much*.

b. Often, *to intend to, to mean to*: Sie will den Kindern ein Fest geben *She intends to give a party for the children*. Er wollte es heute bringen *He meant to bring it to-day*.

Note. Sometimes used to question the ability to carry out an intention or plan: Wie wollen Sie das heut noch vollenden? *How do you expect to accomplish that yet to-day?*

c. A claim that some one makes: Der Zeuge will den Angeklagten gesehen haben *The witness claims to have seen the defendant*. Ich will es nicht gesehen haben *I will claim, pretend that I did not see it*. Figuratively: Das Werk will mehr sein als eine Kompilation *The work professes to be more than a compilation*.

Note. Observe the difference of meaning between the present of *wollen* with the perf. infin. and the pres. perf. of *wollen*: Er will ihn gesehen haben *He claims to have seen him*, but Er hat ihn sehen wollen *He wanted to see him*.

d. Often, *on the point of, to be about to*: Es will regnen *It is on the point of raining*. Ich will es Ihnen sogleich geben *I am going to give it to you directly*. Ich wollte eben zu ihm gehen, als er hereintrat *I was just going to see him when he entered the room*.

e. *Wollen* with the infinitive of the verb to be conjugated is also used to replace the wanting imperative forms; see 177. I. B. a.

f. Sometimes with the idea of confidence, assurance: Ich will es noch erleben, daß Klotz sich . . . zurückzieht (Lessing, *Brief*, 1768) *I shall yet live to see*, &c. Und wenn's nicht wär' durch falsche Keut' verraten worden, wollt' er ihm das Bad gesegnet und ihn ausgerieben haben (Goethe's *Götz*, I, 1). Gehen Sie hinten zum Garten hinaus und auf der Wiese hin, bis es Mittag schlägt; dann kehren Sie zurück, und ich will den Spaß schon eingeleitet haben (id., *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, II, 10) *then return, and I shall surely have made all preparations for the practical joke*. Wart' nur ein Weilchen, bis der Mond aufgegangen ist, dann wollen wir den Weg schon finden (Grimm's *Hänsel und Gretel*). Da dachte ich: Du willst ganz reinen Tisch machen, ganz reinen. Du willst nach Europa hinüberfahren und willst in das Elternhaus gehen und in die Schule und durch die Straßen und auf den Kirchhof und willst noch einmal ganz nüchtern und ehrlich in dein Leben hineinschauen. Und wenn du das getan hast und kannst dann das Fest mitfeiern, dann willst du mitfeiern, sonst willst du noch vor dem Fest wieder weggehen (Frenssen's *Das Heimatsfest*, I, 1) *Then I thought to myself: You (the speaker here admonishing himself) will surely or you must, &c.*

g. *Wollen* is often used more or less pleonastically, and must be variously rendered or not rendered at all. In these cases it represents the statement

not so much as an actual fact as that it is the opinion or seeming intention of somebody, or is seemingly a fact or the probable outcome of the matter, or the natural result of the given circumstances: *Man will mich versichern* (almost = *man versichert mich*), dieses Buch soll verständlicher sein (Forster) Some people assure me this book will certainly be easier to understand. Als er immer und immer nicht **kommen wollte** (almost = **kam**), wurde ein Postbedienter abgeschickt, ihn zu suchen (Hebel). When after a long while he did not put in an appearance (or when it seemed sure that he did not intend to come), a postal clerk was sent to hunt him up. Nun irrte er bereits seit zwei Stunden durch die Kiefern, und der Wald wollte kein Ende nehmen (Baumbach) Now he had been straying about among the fir trees for two hours already, and the forest seemed to have no end. Verlegen, daß seine Nachrichten von dem Arzt kommen wollten (Goethe) Puzzled, because it seemed that no news would come from the doctor. Sie weinte . . . daß sie mir ordentlich leid tun wollte (= tat) (Temme, *Volks-Z.*, 25, 94 A) She cried so that I felt quite sorry for her.

h. Also used as a trans. verb with a noun or pronoun as object, in the sense of *to desire, to will*: *Wollen Sie Erbsen oder Blumenfehl?* Will you take peas or cauliflower? *Wollen Sie etwas Suppe?* Do you desire some soup? *Er will dein Glück.* God will it thus. *Das wolle Gott nicht!* May God forbid! Compare *What wouldst thou of us?* (Shakespeare).

i. Also used as an intransitive verb in the sense of *to have the desire*: *Daß die Kinder nicht wissen, warum sie wollen, darin sind alle hochgelahrte Schul- und Hofmeister einig* (Goethe's *Werther*, Am 22. Mai). „*Willst du das?*“ „*Wenn du willst.*“ „*Nein, du mußt wollen.*“ — Mit freudigem Herzen. *Sonst ist kein Segen dabei*“ (Sudermann's *Die Ehre*, 3, 4).

214. 1. *Omission of the verb depending upon the auxiliary.* This omission is very common, and perhaps the following cases are the most frequent.

a. If the dependent verb is *gehen* to go, *reisen* to travel, *fahren* to drive, and verbs of motion in general: *Wohin wollen Sie (gehen)?* Where do you intend to go? *Ich muß nach Koblenz (gehen)* I must go to Coblenz. Compare the English of Shakespeare: *You may away by night, she must with me, thou shalt to prison.*

b. In case the dependent verb is *tun* to do, *heißen* to signify, and various other words: *Was soll ich (tun)?* What am I to do? *Was soll das (heißen)?* What does that mean? *Der Kranke darf kein Fleisch (essen)* *the patient must not eat meat.*

2. In case the verb depending upon a modal auxiliary is dropped, difference of usage occurs according as the verb is trans. or intrans. With intransitives nothing shows the omission of the verb, but with transitives the pronoun *es* or *das* may stand after the auxiliary as the object of the verb which is to be supplied: *Sprich lauter!* *Ich kann nicht* Speak louder! I cannot. *Kannst du das beweisen?* *Zarwhl; ich kann es, or das kann ich* Can you prove that? Yes, indeed I can. Often the *es* or *das* thus used does not point to a definite object, but to an *idea* suggested by or contained in the previous proposition: *Schaffet und bestellt Klageweiber, daß sie kommen; und schicket nach denen, die es* (referring to the idea of *klagen*, suggested by the word *Klageweiber*) *wohl können* (Jer. ix. 17, revised edition). *Wollen Sie mir diesen Gefallen tun?* *Ich kann es* (referring to the general idea of *doing the favor*, not to *Gefallen*, which is of a different gender) *nicht* Will you do me this favor? I cannot. *O hätte ich mich gefreut, als ich es (= mich freuen) noch konnte!* O, had I enjoyed myself when I was still able to do so! *Er hat es getan, ob er es gemußt hat, weiß ich nicht.* With such transitives this object, however, is often omitted, especially in common conversational style: *Ich mache es so gut ich kann.*

Note. Distinguish between the cases where the auxiliary stands alone, the dependent verb being understood, and the cases where these words are not auxiliaries but independent verbs. The latter case occurs in *können*, 213. 2. F, G, in *mögen*, 213. 3. C, in *müssen*, 213. 4. d, in *sollen*, 213. 5. k, in *wollen*, 213. 6. h, i.

CONJUGATION OF COMPOUND VERBS.

I. GENERAL STATEMENT.

215. I. Separable Compounds. All accented prefixes (see II. 1. B) in compound verbs are separated in the following cases from the simple verb: (1) In the simple tenses (pres. and past) of principal propositions and such subordinate clauses as do not have the transposed word-order, the prefix is separated from the verb and placed at the end of the clause or sentence: (pres.) ich **fange** meine Arbeit **an**; (pres. imper.) **fang** deine Arbeit **an**; (past) ich **fieng** meine Arbeit **an**. Er sagt, er **fange** seine Arbeit **an**; but Er sagt, daß er seine Arbeit **anfange**. (2) In the perf. part. the *ge* and in the infin. and the gerundive the *zu* is inserted between the prefix and the verb, but in these cases the prefix is not really felt as separated and hence is written as one with the verb: ich **habe** meine Arbeit **angefangen**; ich **habe** versprochen, meine Arbeit morgen **anzufangen**; (gerundive) die morgen **anzufangende** Arbeit the work that must be begun to-morrow. Elsewhere the separable prefix is not separated from the verb: (future) ich **werde** meine Arbeit **anfangen**; (pres. part.) ein **anfangender** Advokat a young lawyer who is just beginning to practise his profession.

2. Inseparable Compounds. The prefixes (for list see II. 2) which are always unaccented are never separated from the verb. Such inseparable compounds do not differ in conjugation from simple verbs except that they never take *ge* in the perf. part.: Er **erreicht** seinen Zweck. Er **erreichte** seinen Zweck. Er **hat** seinen Zweck **erreicht**. Er **versucht** (is trying), seinen Zweck **zu erreichen**.

3. Compounds Separable or Inseparable. Certain prefixes (see II. 3. A) are separable or inseparable according as they are accented. If unaccented they are inseparable, if accented they are separable: Er **übersetzt** das Gedicht He is translating the poem. Er **hat** das Gedicht **übersetzt**. Er **versucht**, das Gedicht **zu übersetzen**. But Die **Truppen** **setzen** **über** The troops are crossing the river. Der **Fährmann** **setzt** **sie** **über** The ferryman is taking them across the river. Sie **beabsichtigen** (intend), **ü'berzusetzen**. In the separable compounds each element usually has its full literal meaning, while the inseparable compounds have an altered or figurative meaning.

II. DETAILED STATEMENT.

1. Separable Compounds.

A. The question of separation or non-separation is one of accent, and the accent is a question of the meaning and importance of the prefix. A clear understanding of the question of separable prefixes will result from a study of the origin and position that the German gives to the important words in the sentence.

The word in a sentence that is logically the most important receives the strongest accent. Any word that for one reason or another seems especially important to the speaker is distinguished by stronger stress, though it may

ordinarily be quite unimportant. Logical accent is thus often a matter of subjective view and feeling, but on the other hand certain *grammatical* elements of a sentence are quite regularly more important than others, and are consequently distinguished by stronger accent. Usually the most important grammatical element is the predicate, and consequently it receives *grammatical* accent even though some other word may for some especial reason receive a still stronger *logical* accent. The favorite position of the logically most important word is at the beginning of the sentence, while the favorite position of the grammatically most important element is the **very** last word in the clause or sentence. This position of the grammatically important element at the end of the sentence has in the literary language become fixed and stereotyped, and hence is retained even when the grammatically important word is immediately preceded by some modifier which is relatively more important, and in fact is more forcibly stressed: *Er hat eine Ohrfeige gefriegt*. Such grammatical elements are a predicate noun in the nom., an uninflected adjective standing as a predicate complement, a noun in the acc. or an uninflected adjective used as an objective predicate (see 262. III. 2 and 104. 2. A. c), a perf. part., an infin., and lastly a separable prefix, all of which are absolutely necessary to complete the meaning of the verb, and naturally as due to their grammatical importance stand at the end and receive accent: Predicate noun: *Er war stets in allen Kämpfen ein Mann*. Predicate complement: *Er war in allen Kämpfen tapfer*. Objective predicate: *Er hielt die Fahne in allen Kämpfen hoch* He held high the flag in every battle. Participle: *Er ist nach Hause gegangen*. Infinitive: *Er wird morgen kommen*. *Er wünscht mich kennen zu lernen*. Separable prefix: *Das Schiff ging mit Mann und Maus unter*.

In the last sentence, the separable prefix *unter* is a more important part of the predicate than the finite verb, and takes its place at the end of the sentence. In fact, *unter* is here not a prefix at all, but an independent adverb, which contains the chief idea of the predicate. But there has sprung up, in most cases, such an intimate relation between the verb and the adverb that they form *one* idea, and hence are under certain circumstances written as *one word*. Thus these compounds are not real compounds, as the oneness of the parts of the compound is not under all circumstances so vividly felt that they are kept together in one formal whole. In the simple tenses of principal propositions, the prefix is quite uniformly separated from the verb, and stands at the end of the proposition as in the last example given above. In compound tenses in principal propositions, in all subordinate clauses with the transposed word-order, in participles, and in the gerundive, the parts of these compounds are formally united in one compound, more or less firm. Two things—on the one hand, the principle of placing the important words at the end of the sentence as explained in *a* and *b. aa* below, and, on the other hand, the substantive or adj. nature of the verb in many of these cases—have facilitated here the formation of the compound. There is in our own time a tendency (see 2. c. *Note*, below) to treat these compounds under all circumstances as true compounds, but prefix and verb are as a rule written together only in the cases mentioned above, which are here discussed somewhat at length:

a. In the pres. perf. and past perf. tenses of a separable verb the principle of placing the most important grammatical element in the predicate at the end of the clause would require both the prefix and part. and in the future and fut. perf. both the prefix and infin. to stand last, which of course is impossible, as only one word can be last. The verb (part. or infin.) here as elsewhere has precedence and takes the favorite position at the end, but the prefix stands immediately before it, and, as both together form one idea, they are written usually as one word. However, a separable prefix differs markedly from an inseparable one, although not separated from the verb, for

it still retains its accent, since it is the important element of the verbal compound: Das Schiff ist or (past perf.) war mit Mann und Maus un'tergegangen. Das Schiff wird mit Mann und Maus un'tergehen, or (fut. perf.) wird un'tergegangen sein.

Note. The poet often does violence here to the prose construction and separates the prefix from the verb: Denn sie kann's nur vorhersehen, | ab es wenden kann sie nicht (Grillparzer). Especially in the German spoken by certain foreigners (see 285. II. B. b. ff.) deviations from the usual rules occur. They often separate the separable prefix from the infin. and place it after the infin.: Er ist eingezogen, zu spionieren. Wir wollen ihm kommen zuvor, daß uns nicht kann begegnen ein Unglück (words from a Jewish character in Ebner-Eschenbach's *Der Kreisphysikus*).

b. The position of the separable prefix in the subordinate clause depends upon whether the conjunction introducing the clause is expressed or omitted.

aa. If the subordinate conjunction is expressed, the verb of the clause is required according to the German idiom to stand at the end, and, as the prefix on account of its grammatical importance must also stand at the end, this brings verb and prefix together. As both together form one idea, they are written as one word: Wenn das Schiff vor Morgen nicht mit Mann und Maus un'tergeht, werden alle gerettet. If the verb is in a compound tense the auxiliary goes to the end and the verb compounded with the prefix stands next to it: Ich glaube, daß das Schiff mit Mann und Maus un'tergegangen ist.

bb. If the conjunction daß is omitted, the prefix is treated just as if the clause were a main clause: Ich glaube, das Schiff geht mit Mann und Maus unter. Ich glaube, das Schiff ist mit Mann und Maus untergegangen.

cc. If the conjunction wenn is omitted, the verb stands the first word in the clause and the prefix the last in simple tenses, but in compound tenses the auxiliary stands first in the clause, and the prefix compounded with the verb stands last: Geht das Schiff vor Morgen nicht mit Mann und Maus unter, so werden alle gerettet. Ist das Schiff morgen früh nicht untergegangen, so werden alle gerettet.

c. The ge of the past and the zu of the infin. and gerundive stand between prefix and verb: Er hat die Tür aufgemacht. Ich bitte, die Tür aufzumachen. Please open the door. Die aufzumachende Tür The door that is to be opened.

d. Separation does not take place in the pres. part.: Sind alle diese Kinder Ihre Enkel? fragte die junge Frau, sich teilnehmend im Zimmer umsehend.

e. All separable prefixes remain unseparated in simple tenses in one particular case. If the separable prefix is placed at the head of the sentence for logical emphasis, as can be done with any word, inversion takes place according to the usual rule, and this throws prefix and verb together: Niederjagt die Front der Major (Schiller's *Die Schlacht*) The major dashes down the space in front of the troops. The components are here more commonly, but certainly not more correctly, written apart: Auf steigt der Mond, und nieder sinkt die Sonne (Raabe's *Nach dem grossen Kriege*, p. 2).

f. If there are two accented, separable prefixes, which is a rare case, the first prefix takes the accent. Such compounds, however, are only used in the cases where complete separation never occurs: Zünfte, welche sich wieder nach ihren verschiedenen Gewerken un'terabtheilen. In the part. the ge stands after the second prefix: un'terabgeteilt, rückumgelautet (Blatz's *Neuhochdeutsche Grammatik*, I, p. 535, 3rd ed.).

B. The separable prefix of the verb may be:

a. An adverb or preposition (225. I. a and b): ab off, away from, separation, thoroughness, completion, injury brought about by excessive or long continued activity, gradual diminution or disappearance, the taking back of a former order or announcement; an at, upon, on, on to, to, expressing a rest upon or a touching, movement toward, up, the beginning of an activity; auf up, open, an arousing, a consuming, exhaustion, a restoration to a previous condition; aus out, out of, the finishing or cessation of an activity or a state, the pushing of an activity to a befitting end; bei by, at the side of, aside,

expressing the idea of nearness, close association, coöperation, accompaniment, addition to, direction toward, hostility to; *bevor'* ahead of (of time); *dar to, before* (of place), early in the period used with the force of *dahin'* with reference to a definite place, now = *hin* without reference to a definite place, confined in its use to a few verbs; *ein* into; *emper'* up; *fort* onward, away; *entgegen toward, against*, expressing a friendly movement toward, or a hostile resistance to, or movement against; *entzwei'* (corrupted form of *in zwei*) in two, apart; *her* motion toward the speaker; *hin* motion from the speaker; compounds with *her* and *hin*, as *herab'*, *hinab'*, *dahin'* to that place, to it, denoting motion toward a definite place, *daher'* or *einher'* along, &c.; *hintan'* behind, in a secondary position, after; *los* loose, free from, off, a sudden and lively breaking forth of an activity that is conceived of as held in check, as *losſchießen* to fire away, *losſchlagen* to begin battle; *mit* with; *nach* after, a succession in order of time or place; *nieder* down; *ob* above, on top, upon, fig. of duties that rest or devolve upon us, or of work upon which we must bestow time and labor; *vor* (earlier in period sometimes *für*; see *für*, *b* in 230) before, forward, also in compounds (*voraus*, &c.); *weg* away; *davon'* up and away; *weiter* continuation: *weitergehen* to continue, but *weiter gehen* to go on further; *zurück* back; *zu* to, toward, addition, shutting; *zusam'men* together; *zuver'* before, ahead of (of time), &c.

b. An adjective, usually used as an objective predicate (see 104. 2. A. c): *tot ſchlagen* or *totschlagen* to strike dead, *bloßstellen* to expose, lit. place bare, *gut'machen* or *gut machen* to make good. This is a very large group of words, but there is no uniform way of writing them. The closer adjective and verb blend together by taking on a distinct meaning not contained in the words taken separately, the more liable they are to be written together.

c. A noun (see 249. II. 1. D): *acht'geben* to give attention, *haus'halten* to keep house, *Folge leisten* to obey, *teil'nehmen* to take part in.

d. A prepositional phrase (see 249. II. 1. C): *zu Schiffe gehen* to go on board, *zu teil werden* to be allotted, *zu stunde kommen* to be accomplished, &c.

2. Inseparable Compounds.

The inseparable prefixes are: *be*, *ent* (written *emp* before *f*: *empfinden*), *er*, *ge*, *ver*, *weiter*, *zer*, and usually *miß* (see *b*, below). As they do not now as formerly have separate existence outside of compounds, verbs compounded with them are in reality not compounds, but only derivative verbs. These prefixes have, however, a distinct meaning, and often influence both the meaning and construction of the verb. Their meanings are treated in 246. II. at length, as their importance deserves. These prefixes are ordinarily without accent, but to make a contrast, they may receive stress: *In zu feuchten Gegenden muß man die Felder nicht be- sondern entwässern* In very moist regions, it is necessary to drain instead of irrigating. As they are usually unaccented they have in course of time changed considerably their original form, and have lost their identity as independent words which they once were, and are now so closely compounded with the verb that they are felt as one with it, and can never be separated from it.

a. In the perf. part. these prefixes never take a *ge* before them, but in the infin. and gerundive the *zu* stands before them: *Er hat die Tür verschlossen.* Ich bitte, die Tür zu verschließen Please lock the door. Die zu verschließende Tür the door that is to be locked.

b. Among these prefixes *miß* occupies an exceptional position, as fully explained in 246. II. 8.

c. When a separable prefix stands before an inseparable one, separation usually takes place, but there is in individual cases evidently a tendency to disregard this rule: *Ich erkenne die Verdienste des Mannes an*, but also *Ich anerkenne den Widerstreit der Meinungen* (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, III, chap. ii). *Zugleich mit dem Helben anerkennt Kleist die Schranken, welche dem frei schweifenden*

Genietum sich setzen müssen (Brahm's *Kleist*, p. 304). Gines anerkennt gewiß auch du (Fulda's *Talisman*, ii, 6). Zufundus anerbote sich, die Mission zu übernehmen (G. Keller). Niemandem auf der Welt anvertraute er das Schicksal seines einzigen Kindes mit größerer Beruhigung als gerade ihm (Ertl's *Mistral*, v).

Note. There is also, especially in certain words, a trend toward non-separation even in case of separable prefixes which are not thus used in connection with an inseparable prefix: Alle Stoffe, die man setzt ihrem Gedächtnis anbietet, wiederfäuen sie nicht (Gutzkow, iii, 222), instead of fäuen sie nicht wieder. Mir war, als obläge mir die Sorge über eine ganze Welt (Rosegger's *Waldheim*, i. 186). Aber nur um so gewissenhafter und leidenschaftlicher oblag er seinen Pflichten (Voss's *Psyche*, x). From such examples as these we can clearly see the process by which all the above-mentioned inseparable prefixes have in course of time become inseparable. The prefix becomes closely identified with the verb as forming a part of it, and the compound becomes firm and fixed.

d. When an inseparable prefix stands before a separable one, the compound is inseparable: An der Tür wird [Bettlern] nichts verabreicht. Compare 3. A. h, below.

3. Compounds Separable or Inseparable.

A. A few prefixes have double accent, accented or unaccented according to their meaning, and as a consequence are treated as separable or inseparable according to their accent and meaning. These prefixes are: durch through, hinter behind, über over, above, um around, unter under, beneath, voll full, completion, wieder again, back.

Verbs compounded with these prefixes are separable when the prefix receives the principal accent and is distinctly felt as the more important element of the compound. These verbs become inseparable when the accent is placed upon the verb. This shifting of the accent upon the verb may result in intensifying the verbal force of the new compound or the weakening of the distinctly local force of the prefix by the weakening of its accent, which latter result often facilitates the use of the compound in a figurative sense. These inseparable verbs take on figurative meaning if the simple verb is trans., and if the simple verb is intrans. the compound verb becomes trans. with figurative or literal meaning. In the latter case the inseparable verb takes on intensive force, and only in this respect and grammatical construction does it differ from the intrans. separable verb. Few inseparable verbs are intrans. Hinter is rarely accented in these compounds, and hence is usually employed in a figurative application. It is accented, and has its literal meaning only in popular and colloquial language. The more detailed treatment is as follows:

a. The separable verb is trans. or intrans. with literal meaning: Der Fährmann setzte die Truppen über The ferryman transported the troops over the river, or intrans.: Die Truppen setzten über The troops went over the river on the ferry. Man setzt das Erz durch They are putting the ore through the melting-furnace. Das Pferd setzte durch The horse plunged through (the river). The same verb is trans. and inseparable in figurative or altered meaning: Der Schüler übersetzte das Buch The student translated the book. Die Luft ist mit Gärtnisstoffen durchsetzt The air is permeated with impurities. Sometimes the inseparable verb is used literally or figuratively, as in both cases the idea contained in the verb is so important as to require the accent: Das Haus ist mit Balken unterstützt The house is supported by beams and Der Kaufmann ist mit Geld unterstützt The merchant receives financial support. Compare: Come over and overcome, go under and undergo, hold up and uphold, look over and overlook, set up and upset.

b. The separable verb is intrans. with literal meaning: Er hielt nirgends an, er fuhr durch, ist durchgefahren He stopped nowhere, he drove through. Die Milch ist übergelaufen The milk has run over, overflowed. Also metonymically Der Krug ist übergelaufen. The inseparable verb is trans. with figurative meaning: Der gellende Ruf durchfuhr meine Glieder, hat meine Glieder durchschauern The

piercing cry went through my very limbs. Ich habe die Rechnung nur überlaufen I have only cast a glance over the bill. Es überlief' mich kalt My blood ran cold. Seine Gläubiger überlaufen ihn His creditors are annoying him. Also according to *c* with different shades of meaning: Ich habe mich überlaufen I have exhausted myself with running. Tränen überliefen sein Antlitz Tears flowed fast down his cheeks.

c. The separable verb is intrans. with literal meaning: Er reiste durch He travelled right through. The inseparable verb is trans. with literal meaning and intensive force: Er durchreiste die Gegend He travelled all over that part of the country. See also last part of *b*.

d. Few inseparable verbs are intransitive: Sie mußten im Walde übernachten. Kurzum, er konnte sich nicht halten und übersiedelte (also separable) . . . nach England (Fontane's *Cécile*, chap. x). Die Höfe, die sie im Fluge durchschritten, wiederhallten (also separable) (Gutzkow's *R.*, 6, 352). Vier Söhne sind hinterblieben Four sons survive (the deceased).

e. There is often only a slight shade of difference between separable and inseparable verbs. The trans. inseparable may have perfective (denoting the outcome or result of an action) force, while the trans. separable compound has both durative (denoting duration) and perfective force: Der Soldat durchbohrt' den Feind *The soldier is despatching the enemy*, but Der Tischler bohrt das Brett durch *The joiner is boring a hole through the board*. The first sentence represents only the final point in the action, while the second shows the action as continuing, at the same time, however, intimating that the hoped-for result will be attained. Sometimes there is little or no difference between the trans. inseparable and trans. separable.

There is often no difference between the inseparable trans. verb and the separable intrans., except that they require after them a different grammatical construction: Das Pferd hat den Graben übersprungen. Das Pferd ist hinübergesprungen *The horse has jumped over (the ditch)*.

Sometimes there is no difference at all between separable and inseparable formations, especially in case of wieder: Die Töne haben in den Räumen wiederhallt or wiederhallt'. Die Räume haben die Töne wiedergehallt, or less commonly wiederhallt'.

f. Sometimes the separable verb takes on figurative meaning, and yet remains separable where the force of the prefix is more vividly felt than that of the verb, and hence is too prominent to be united with the verb and lose its identity: Das Wetter schlägt um *There is a sudden change in the weather*. Die Krankheit schlägt um. Er schlägt um *He changes his whole nature*. Er setzte seinen Plan durch *He carried his plan through*.

g. Sometimes the separable verb that is usually intrans. may become trans. with different meanings according as it is used literally or figuratively: Das Pferd ist durchgegangen *The horse has run away*. Die Sohlen waren so dünn, daß ich sie gleich durchgegangen habe *The soles of the shoes were so thin that I soon wore them through*. Ich habe die Arbeiten meiner Schüler oft durchgegangen *I have often gone over or looked over the exercises of my pupils*.

h. When one of these prefixes stands unaccented before an accented prefix, usage varies. According to the analogy of the prefixes which are always inseparable, as described in 2. *d.* above, such compounds ought to be inseparable, and they are generally so, but they often take a *ge* or *zu* after the accented prefix: Er überanstrengt sich. Er hat sich überanstrengt or überangestrengt. Sie sind überangestrengt (Anselm Heine's *Eine Gabe*, Am 13. Juni). Ich war immer ein überangestrongter geplagter Mann (Fulda's *Die wilde Jagd*, 4, 5). Ich fürchte, mich zu überanstrengen. Zum Kirchenbaumeister soll man einen angenehmen Rentner wählen und einen Mann, der durch seine Unterhaltungsgabe die Handwerker abhalten kann, bei der Kirchenarbeit sich überanzustrengen (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, III, 10).

B. The student may be helped by studying the following additional sentences:—

Inseparable.

Der Trompeter durchbläst die Stadt plays
all over the town.

Er hinterbringt ihm die Nachricht brings
him secretly news.

Ich übergehe den Fehler I overlook the
fault.

Er umlief das Haus dreimal He ran
round the house three times.

Der Beamte unterschlägt Gelder The
official embezzles money.

Er vollbringt die Tat He accomplishes
the deed.

Er wiederholte das Gesagte He repeated
what he said.

Separable.

Er bläst das Stück durch He plays the
piece through.

Der Kranke bringt kein Bissen mehr hinter
doesn't eat a bite. See A, above.

Er geht zum Feinde über He goes over
to the enemy.

Er lief den Stuhl um He knocked the
chair over.

Er schlägt ihm ein Bein unter He trips
him up.

Er bringt das Glas voll He brings the
glass full.

Er holt es morgen wieder He will get it
again to-morrow.

Note. In such sentences as *Er bringt das Glas voll* the prefix *voll* may also be regarded as an adjective and construed as an objective predicate. Hence usage fluctuates as to the written form of the infinitive and perf. participle: *voll bringen* and *vollbringen*, *voll gebracht* and *vollgebracht*. The prefix often enters into closer relations with the verb, forming with it one meaning, and is here usually written together with it as one word: *Er hat sich den Leib vollgeschlagen* He has stuffed himself (with food). *Du hast deinen Rock vollgefressen* You have soiled your coat (in eating or drinking).

NOUNS MADE FROM COMPOUND VERBS.

216. Nouns made from verbs of course retain the accent of the verb: *aus'gehen*, der *Aus'gang* outcome; *befehl'en*, der *Befehl'* command; *ü'bersetzen*, die *Ü'bersetzung* transportation; *überset'en*, die *Überset'ung* translation. For notable exception see art. 47. 3. B. a.

VERBS INDIRECTLY COMPOUNDED.

217. There is a class of verbs (see 206) that seem to be compounded by prefixing a noun or adjective to a simple verb, but they are in reality made from compound substantives or adjectives. Verbs that have received their compound form in this indirect way have noun accent, i. e., accent on the first syllable, and are treated as simple verbs: *das Früh'stück* breakfast, *früh'stücken* to take breakfast, *früh'stückte*, *gefrüh'stückt*; der *Rat'schlag* counsel, *rat'schlagen* to take counsel with, *rat'schlagte*, *gerat'schlagt*; die *Hand'habe* handle, *hand'haben* to handle, *hand'habte*, *gehand'habt*, &c.

a. In some cases the noun or adj. from which the verb was made has gone out of use: *wetterleuchten* to *sheet-lighten* from M.H.G. *weterleichen*. Thus also *rechtfertigen* to justify, *brand'schagen* to lay under contribution, *weis'sagen* to prophesy, &c.

b. This class of words has been productive in that other words have been formed after analogy with these, by simply welding two words which together form one idea into one word, and treating them then as a simple verb: *lieb'äugeln* to ogle, *lob'preisen* to praise in song, *lob'singen* (w. dat.) to sing praises to, *will'fahren* (w. dat.) to humor a person or gratify his wishes, *lieb'fosen* to caress, &c. The last two, however, and also *freu'losen* may also be accented on the second syllable, and hence may be treated as inseparable verbs and drop *ge* in the perf. part.; see 178. 2. A. b. (3). On the other hand, *lob'singen* and *lob'preisen* are sometimes in the infinitive and perf. part. treated as separable verbs: *lob'zupreisen*, *lobge'preisen*.

c. The following are the most common compounds treated as simple verbs, all of which are weak except where otherwise indicated: *afterreden*, *argwöhnen*, *brandmarfen*, *buchbindern*, *ehebrechen* (see *Note 1*), *erbschleichen* (strong, also separable), *falschmünzen*, *federfuchsen*, *feuerwerfen*, *flüschustern*, *frohloden* (see also *b*), *frühstücken*, *fuchschwänze*(l)n, *fuhrwerfen*, *fußwandern*, *geistreicheln* to try to talk or write in a bright racy style, *glattfeilen* (impers.), *handhaben*, *handlange*(r)n, *heiraten*, *herbergen*, *hofmeistern*, *hohlnädeln* (über w. acc., sometimes separable w. dat.), *fannegießern* (sometimes *fannegießen*, which is separable and strong), *fagbalgen*, *fagenbucheln*, *fennzeichnen*, *fielholen*, *kleinmünzeln* to be particular in little points, *forstschütteln*, *krasfüßeln*, *kundschaften*, *langweilen*, *liebäugeln*, *liebosen*, *lobhudeln*, *lobpreisen* (198. 2; see also *b*, above), *lobsingen* (always strong, see *b*, above), *lustwandeln*, *maßregeln*, *meuchelmorden*, *mutmaßen*, *nachtwandeln*, *nasenstübern*, *nassführen* (also separable), *nießbrauchen* or *nießnutzen*, *nicksäpfen*, *nottaufen*, *ohrfeigen*, *quacksalbern*, *radebrechen* (sometimes strong), *ratschlagen*, *rechtfertigen*, *schadenfreuen*, *scharwerfen*, *sneeballern*, *schriftstellern*, *schuhriegeln* to knock (some one) around, *schulmeistern*, *singsangen*, *strafpredigen* to censure one's conduct, *tagebieben*, *vierteilen*, *wahrsagen*, *wallfahr*(t)en, *weglagern*, *wehklagen*, *weisagen*, *wetteisern*, *wetterleuchten*, *wettlaufen* (strong), *wettrennen* (conj. like *rennen*), *wilddieben*, *wildheuen*, *willfahren* (see *b*, above), *windbeuteln*, *wirtschaften*, *zähneknirschen*.

Note 1. The verb *ehebrechen* is only used in the pres. part. and the simple infinitive form without *zu*, elsewhere being replaced by the verb *brechen* and the noun *die Ehe*: *eine ehebrechende Frau*. *Du sollst nicht ehebrechen*. *But Gott verbietet, die Ehe zu brechen*.

Note 2. Present usage fluctuates with regard to the inflection of the basal component of some of these verbs, the strong or the weak form or both occurring. The strong form asserts itself sometimes contrary to the rule of the grammarian, as the compound noun is not now in use while the force of the simple strong verb is distinctly felt: *der sie* (i.e. *die Sprache*) . . . *radebricht* (P. Heyse, iii. 226). In early N.H.G. we find strong forms even where the compound noun is in common use: *Von dem tage an ratschlügen sie | wie sie in tödten* (John xi. 53).

Fluctuation also prevails with regard to the firmness of some of these compounds, inseparable and separable forms occurring. The separable forms are in most part confined to the perf. participle and the infinitive with *zu*, the accent upon the first element suggesting the insertion of *ge* or *zu* after analogy of separable compounds, which are likewise accented upon the first element: *Ich habe erbgeschlichen* (Hillern's *Arzt*, i, 186); *um erbzuschlichen*; *wettgelaufen*, *wettgerannt*, *but gewetteisert*.

REFLEXIVE VERBS.

218. I. The verb may be connected with the reflexive pronouns (see 142) in much the same way as in English. Most reflexive verbs govern the acc., but a few govern the dat. and a still smaller number the gen.:

Present Tense Indicative.

sich irren (w. acc.), to be mistaken.	schmeicheln (w. dat.), to flatter.	spotten (w. gen.), to ridicule.
ich irre mich	ich schmeichle mir	ich spotte meiner
{ du irrst dich	{ du schmeichelst dir	{ du spottest deiner
{ Sie irren sich	{ Sie schmeicheln sich	{ Sie spotten Ihrer selbst
er irrt sich	er schmeichelt sich	er spottet seiner selbst
wir irren uns	wir schmeicheln uns	wir spotten unser(er)
{ ihr irrt euch	{ ihr schmeichelt euch	{ ihr spottet euer(er)
{ Sie irren sich	{ Sie schmeicheln sich	{ Sie spotten Ihrer selbst
sie irren sich	sie schmeicheln sich	sie spotten ihrer selbst

a. In all tenses, the reflexive usually stands first in order of words among the modifiers of the predicate, preferring especially the place next to the verb, and in compound tenses next to the auxiliary: Das Kind hat sich vor der Strafe gefürchtet, or in the question order: Hat sich das Kind vor der Strafe gefürchtet? However, in the question order the reflexive must follow the *subject* if the subject be a pronoun: Wie befinden Sie sich? How do you do?

b. As indicated by its position the reflexive pronoun is entirely without accent. If it is to be made prominent, the word selbst must be added, which bears the accent: Der leidenschaftlich erregte Jüngling tötete sich selbst, nicht seinen Beleidiger.

2. There is a difference in reflexive verbs. Some are usually reflexive, pronoun and verb together forming one idea: sich schämen to be ashamed, sich sehnen to long (for), sich freuen to rejoice, sich wundern to be surprised, &c. Some trans. and intrans. verbs are also used reflexively: baden to bathe, ich habe mich; gehen to walk, ich gehe mich müde I walk myself tired.

a. The reflexive pronoun in genuine reflexive verbs is not felt as an object in the strict sense of the term and hence is not treated as an independent element in the sentence, but merely as a part of the verb, and consequently the predicate complement does not agree with it in case, but refers back to the subject with which it agrees: Er wundert sich als unerfahrener (not unerfahrenen) Neuling über alles.

b. The predicate complement of verbs not really reflexive but used reflexively agrees sometimes with the subject and sometimes with the reflexive object, as usage has not yet become fixed at this point: Dann übt der Jüngling streitend seine Kräfte, fühlt, was er ist, und fühlt sich bald ein Mann (Goethe's *Tasso*, I, 2). Wenn du . . . schwelgest, wo ich einen Gott mich fühlte (Schiller's *Kab.*, iv. 3). Da fühlst du dich ein Held, ein Gott, ein Mann (Grillparzer's *Des Meeres und der Liebe Wellen*, 2). Ein Mensch, der sich als seinen eigenen Antipoden fühlt (Gutzkow). Jeder Gebildete fühlt sich gern als mitbestellter Wächter dieser Bildung (Rudolf Hildebrand). Ich fühlte mich als der Apostel eines verfeinerten, veredelten Menschevolks (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Glaubenslos*, chap. viii). Es war ersichtlich, daß er in folge der gegen ihn erhobenen Anklagen, vielleicht auch geheimer Vorwürfe, die er selbst sich machte, anfang, sich gleichsam als Mitschuldiger der Cholera zu fühlen (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxvi). Der Westwind stürzte sich vom Meer her über den Winter im Land und fing an, sich als den Stärkeren zu fühlen (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, III, 8). Wendelin, der das Talent hat, bei seiner Wasserkaraffe sich Herr von ungezählten Welten zu fühlen (Fontane's *Poggenpuhls*, chap. iv). Wer ein Original sein will, beweist, daß er sich als Dugendmenschen fühlt (Otto v. Leixner). Briest gab sich als zärtlicher Großvater (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. xxiv). Es ist anstrengend, einem Gefühlschwärmer, als welchen Baderewski sich ausschließlich gab, einen langen Abend hindurch zu folgen (*Tägliche Rundschau*). Du nennst dich einen Teufel, und stehst doch ganz vor mir (Goethe's *Faust*, I). Ich denk', er nennt mein guter Freund sich noch (Kleist's *Der zerbrochene Krug*, 10). Alles, was sich dabei „höherer Gesichtspunkt" nennt, ist Dummheit oder Verranntheit oder Willkür (Fontane's *Cécile*, xx). Verzweifelt wie alles,

was sich Deutscher nennt (Wildenbruch's *König Heinrich*, 2, 2). Der sich wähnte den Herrscher der Welt (Freiligrath, *Volksztg.*, 18, 191). Es ist nichts Geringses, an der goldenen Tafel der Olympier zu sitzen, sich wohl gar einer ihrer zu wähnen (Spielhagen's *Selbstgerecht*, p. 64).

Note. There is a tendency to make a distinction here between nom. and acc. The former is a simple predication of a fact known and acknowledged, the latter indicates a desire or intention on the part of the speaker or some one else to show himself in the capacity mentioned in the predicate complement, and in general calls attention to a fact not before known to the person in question: Er zeigt sich als ein gebildeter, unterrichteter Mann, but Traue nicht jedem, der sich dir als deinen Freund zeigen will. Ich habe mich stets als alter Freund deines Vaters, dem ich so viel verdanke, gezeigt; daher werde ich mich dir auch in diesem bedenklichen Unternehmen als den treuesten Berater erweisen, den du wünschen magst. Man kann sich empfehlen als jemandes aufrichtigen Verehrer, ergebensten Diener (He desires to show himself in these capacities), aber nur als sein dankbarer Schüler (He is already known as a student and hence need not make known his desire to appear in this capacity, but simply states it as a fact by using the nom.).

c. Because the reflexive is not felt as object, it cannot in the passive voice become subject. Hence reflexive verbs should not form a passive, but the people insist nevertheless on forming one, however an impersonal (never a personal) passive (see 219. 5. B): Da wird sich gerudert (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, ii, p. 24). The reflexive is also omitted in this construction: Hier wird hingeseht! 's ist Platz genug für 'n lustiges Kleeblatt (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 133).

3. The reflexive verb in German has a wider field of usefulness than in English. It is often used:

A. In a passive sense:

a. When the reference is not to a definite agent by whom the action is performed, but to something that will come about of itself in due time and under favorable circumstances, or to something that is represented as proceeding spontaneously under the impulse of natural forces, or as brought about naturally by the given circumstances, or is represented as self-acting or impelled by some hidden force so that it seems to act of itself: Der Schlüssel wird sich finden The key will be found. Zwischen den Augen hatte sich eine tiefe Falte gegraben A deep wrinkle had been formed (as the result of care) between his eyes. Der Mut verlernt sich nicht, wie er sich nicht lernt Courage is a natural gift that cannot be acquired or lost. Daß Spiel des Lebens sieht sich heiter an, | wenn man den sicheren Schatz im Herzen trägt (Schiller) The game of life is viewed with cheerful composure if one has within his own heart the consciousness of a happiness that is secure. Es versteht sich It is understood (i. e. it is a matter of course). Der Wiesengrund ist schon so bunt und malt sich täglich bunter The meadow is already resplendent with many colors and is daily adorned with still brighter ones. Daß Thor öffnete sich dem Sieger The gate was opened to the victor. Der Saal füllte sich allmählich The great room was gradually filled with people.

b. Especially frequent is the reflexive use of lassen with a dependent infinitive which has passive force: Daß läßt sich leicht machen That is easily done. Daß läßt sich leicht sagen That is easily said. Er läßt sich auf sich haben He is easily imposed upon, He'll stand anything,

lit. He allows wood to be chopped upon himself. Er läßt sich leicht abschrecken He is easily deterred.

B. In German there are comparatively few verbs which are used both transitively and intransitively as is so common in English. The German idiom very often adopts the reflexive to give a transitive verb intransitive force: Diese Stiefel tragen sich gut These boots wear well. Der Wind hat sich gebreht The wind has turned. Das Wetter ändert sich The weather is changing. Sie kleidet sich einfach She dresses plainly. Das Schiff nähert sich dem Ufer The ship is approaching the shore. Das Volk sammelt sich auf dem Rathhaus The people are assembling at the city hall. Er hat sich um vier Mark verrechnet He has made a mistake of four marks in counting. Der Wind legt sich The wind is abating. Die Nachricht hat sich verbreitet The news has spread.

a. A few verbs are used intransitively or reflexively: (sich) eilen to hasten, (sich) enden to end, (sich) flüchten to flee, (sich) gebären to act, behave, (sich) irren to err, make a mistake, (sich) nähern to approach, (sich) säumen to delay, (sich) verweilen to tarry, and sometimes (sich) sorgen (usually intrans.), (sich) bangen (usually intrans.) to be afraid, &c.

C. With intransitives (or transitives used like intransitives without an object) in the impersonal construction, to show that the action is proceeding, or is able to proceed in a certain manner, which is represented as the natural result of the given circumstances: Es tanzt sich gut in diesem Saal This room is good for dancing. Es fährt sich bequem in diesem Wagen It is pleasant riding in this carriage. Wie ritt es sich lustig durch die gebirgigen Wege! What jolly riding that was over the mountain roads! Es schreibt sich schlecht auf diesem Papier This paper is bad for writing on. Es arbeitet sich bei diesem Lärm schlecht It is hard to work with such a noise going on. Mit der Eisenbahn fährt es sich rasch. Von eurer Fahrt kehrt sich's nicht immer wieder From journeys like yours it is in the nature of things that one does not always return.

a. Sometimes a trans. verb and its object are conceived of as forming together an intrans. verb, and can thus form this impersonal reflexive construction: Wie hübsch spielt sich's den Vater, wenn man so allerliebste Geständnisse zu hören bekommt (Schiller) How nice it is to play the father when one gets to hear such charming confessions.

D. Frequent is the use of a reflexive in connexion with a prep. phrase or an objective predicate to denote the goal or the result of an action: Er bettelt sich durch das ganze Land He begs his way all over the country. Ich lief mich in Schweiß I began to perspire from running. Ich fiel mich wund I became sore from a fall.

E. Haben is often used reflexively as a strong negative reply to a preceding statement, but is in fact an affirmative assertion, uttered in an ironical tone: Und das Geschäft blüht? Jawohl, blüht! Hat sich da was zu blühen! (Eckstein) Is your business flourishing? O yes, it is flourishing finely (ironically). „Ihr Phlegma ist bewundernswert.“ „Hat sich was,“ brummte der Angeredete, „der Teufel ist phlegmatisch.“ ‘Your phlegmatic temperament is worthy of admiration.’ ‘I don't know about that, (or O no, not at all,) the devil is phlegmatic.’ Ja, es hat sich was mit dem „Gut“! Böse sollte es heißen

It is not good at all. It ought to be called bad. The reflexive, as in the first sentence, is sometimes followed by an infin. which contains the substance of the preceding sentence, but short elliptical expressions such as (es) hat sich was, or es hat sich wohl with the force of a negative adverb are more common.

F. In an exceedingly large list of idiomatic expressions where in English there is no corresponding reflexive, of which a few are here given: Ihr Gesicht überfloß sich mit einer Röte (Jensen's *Heimkunft*, vii) Her face was suffused with blushes. Sie (die Schwestern) küßten sich mit dem Bruder (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, xxix) They kissed their brother. Notice also the following:

sich ärgern über (w. acc.) to be annoyed over.

sich aufhalten to stay in a place.

sich beeilen to make haste.

sich befinden to do (how do you do?).

sich beklagen to complain.

sich bekümmern to bother about.

sich belaufen auf (acc.) to amount to.

sich bemühen (with zu and infin.) to endeavor.

sich betragen to behave.

sich erinnern (gen.) to remember.

sich entschließen zu to resolve to.

sich erholen to get better.

sich erkälten to catch cold.

sich erkundigen nach to inquire after.

sich freuen über (w. acc.) to rejoice at.

sich fürchten vor (w. dat.) to be afraid of.

sich hüten vor to be on one's guard against.

sich schämen to be ashamed.

sich setzen to sit down.

sich sehnen nach to long for.

sich unterhalten mit to converse with.

sich verlassen auf (acc.) to depend on.

sich verspäten to be late.

sich weigern to refuse.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

219. Impersonal verbs are conjugated like other verbs throughout the different moods and tenses, but are defective in having only a third person sing. and no passive at all (for exception see 5, below). The subject of such impersonal verbs is the indefinite es expressing an agent only in a vague and most general way. The impersonal construction in German is a favorite one and has been very productive, and many verbs are now used impersonally which with other meanings are also personal. The following groups are very common:

1. Verbs which express phenomena of nature, the time of day, and seasons of the year: es regnet it rains; es schneit it snows; es hagelt it hails; es friert it freezes; es dämmt it is twilight; es tagt it is dawning; es tauet auf it thaws; es donnert it thunders; es blizt it lightens; es wird Nacht it is getting quite dark; es ist kalt, warm, heiß, and in S.G. machts heiß? (Grillparzer's *Libussa*, 2), es macht kalt; es ist elf it is eleven o'clock; es geht auf elf; es schlägt elf; es ist dunkel, es ist Sommer, es lenzt spring is coming, has come, es herbstet, &c.

2. Many reflexive verbs or verbs used reflexively: es fragt sich,

ob the question arises, it is doubtful whether; *es ziemt sich* it is proper, seemly; *es gibt sich nicht gut*, wenn man nichts hat (218. 3. C); *es geht sich sehr gut* the walking is good, &c.; *es versteht sich* it is a matter of course; *es ereignet sich* it happens; wenn *es sich zutragen sollte*, daß if it should unexpectedly happen that, &c.; *es handelt sich um* (w. acc.) it is a question of, is at stake, &c.

3. Some trans. and intrans. verbs are used impersonally to indicate that the subject of the verb expressing the action or state is thought of as something indefinite, vague or general: *Es zuckte um seinen Mund* There was a twitching about his mouth. *Es klopft* Somebody is knocking. *Es läutet* The bell is ringing. *Es seht Schläge* There is a quarrel. *Es geht gut* Things are going along well. *Es geht los* Now things are beginning in good earnest. *Es geht nicht* It won't do, it can't be done. *Es steht schlecht* Affairs are in a bad condition. *Es hat Gefahr* There is danger. *Morgen geht's nach Deutschland* To-morrow we start for Germany. *Auf der Promenade wogt es von Menschen* The promenade is crowded with people. *Es wogte und tobte* There was a heaving and raging, or their minds were in violent commotion. *Manchmal lief es ihm kalt den Rücken herab* Many a time a cold thrill ran down his back.

Sometimes the object in using *es* is to indicate an indefinite or indescribable something or to impart a weird, ghostly impression: *Es läßt mir keine Ruhe* A queer undefinable feeling of unrest disquiets me. *Was gibt's heute?* *Es gibt heute noch Schnee* What will we get to-day? We'll have snow sometime to-day, lit. an undefinable something will send us snow. Und als er im willigen Schlummer lag, bewegt es sich unter dem Bette And when he was about to go to sleep something stirs under the bed.

a. The impersonal *es gibt there is, there are* from its unusual frequency demands careful attention. The original idea is that the force of circumstances or the existing condition of things will produce or cause something to come into existence, or has caused it to come into being and it now exists, can be found. Though this original idea has become somewhat obscured, its leading notion still remains that of the existence of something represented in a vague or general manner as the decree of a wise providence, or the result of the general laws of nature or of certain circumstances. *Es gibt* is always in the sing. as *es* is the subject, and what in English is the subject will in German be in the acc., object of the verb: *Es gibt eine Vergeltung im Leben* There is such a thing in life as retribution. *Es gab keinen größeren Meister in der Kunst des Halbbunkels als den Doktor Theophile Stein* (Raabe's *Hungerpastor*, chap. xx). *Es gibt solche Menschen* There are such people. *Es gibt nichts Dümmeres als ihn* There is nothing more stupid than he is. *Was gibt's Neues?* *Es gibt nichts Neues* What's the news? There is no news. *Es gibt Streit und Lärm* There is contention and noise going on. *Sei artig, sonst gibt's Schläge* Be good, or you will be punished. *Gestern zu Mittag gab's Kohl und heut gibt's wieder welschen* (see 139. 3. k) Yesterday we had cabbage for dinner, and to-day we shall have more.

After the analogy of a number of the above sentences where *es gibt* is used in a broad general statement it is sometimes employed to avoid particular mention, and to state something in a vague, general way: *Es gibt hier einen jungen Menschen, der seine Äußerungen ein wenig mehr bewachen könnte* There is here a young fellow (I do not desire to point him out) who might be a little more guarded in his remarks.

In contrast to *es gibt* is *es ist* *there is* and *es sind* *there are*, in the sing. or pl. as in English according to the logical subject. These forms differ from *es gibt* in that they are used only when definite individuals or places are referred to, and there is no reference whatever to any causes or forces which have any relation to the existence of the person or thing in that place: *Es gibt Bücher, die beim ersten Blick Geist zu verraten scheinen, im Grunde aber leerer, oberflächlicher Schaum sind* *There are books which at first sight seem to betray spirit, but which are in reality mere superficial froth*, but when the reference becomes definite: *Es sind zwei Bücher, deren Lesung ich Ihnen empfehle* *There are two books which I recommend you to read*. *Es gibt Blumen, welche Insekten fressen* *There are flowers which eat insects* (an instance of nature's wonderful productive power), but *Es sind schöne Blumen in diesem Strauß* *There are beautiful flowers in this bouquet*. *Es gibt Löwen in Afrika, aber nicht in Europa* *There are lions in Africa, but not in Europe* (which is a natural result of different climatic conditions and the different state of civilization), but *Es sind weiße Elefanten in dieser Menagerie* *There are white elephants in this menagerie*.

Note. The real nature of this construction must now be little felt, as in many dialects the object of *geben* has become the subject and this incorrect usage appears occasionally in the literary language: *Es ist ein Raub, wie's mehr noch geben* (Goethe's *Urfaust*, I. 1175). *Es müssen auch solche Räube geben* (*Kölnische Zeitung*).

4. Some verbs expressing states of the mind or body. They fall into two groups (*a* and *b*), of which the second is growing at the expense of the first:

A. *a.* Those that take an acc. of the person: *es ärgert mich* I am vexed; *es betrübt mich* I am grieved; *es dauert mich*, or *ich bedauere*, daß I regret that; *es denkt mich* (earlier in the period *mich* or *mir*, now *mir*, see 262. II. A. *c* and B. *d*); *es dünkt* (rare form *dünkelt*) or *bedünkt* (*bedünkelt*) *mich* or *mir* it seems to me; *es durstet* or *durstet mich*, or *ich bin durstig* I am thirsty, *ich dürste nach*; *es freut mich* or *ich freue mich* darüber I am glad, rejoiced; *es friert mich* I am cold, *es friert mich an* (w. dat. of the part affected, as *den Füßen*, sometimes also w. acc. *die Füße*) or with a little different meaning in w. acc. (: *es friert mich bis in die Fingerspitzen*), or *ich friere an* (*den Füßen*), or *mir frieren die Füße*; *es fröstelt mich* or sometimes *mir* (: *dem Pfarrherrn fröstelte oft in der heißesten Glut des Juli*—Raabe's *Else von der Tanne*); *es gelüftet* or *lüftet mich* (sometimes *mir*) *nach*, or *ich gelüste* or *lüste nach* I long for, lust after, *es lüstert mich* (sometimes *mir*) *nach*, or *ich lüstere nach* I have a desire, longing for; *es gereut* or *reut mich* (sometimes *mir*) I feel sorry, feel remorse; *es hungert mich*, or *ich bin hungrig* I am hungry; *es jammert mich* (in N.G. sometimes also *mir*) it fills me with pity; *es juckt mich* I itch; *es schaudert mich* or *mir* (: *Und auf einmal schauderte ihr*—Wilbrandt's *Vater Robinson*, II. chap. v) (*vor*), or *ich schaudere* (*vor* w. dat.) I shudder (*at*); *es schläfert mich* I am sleepy; *es schmerzt mich* it pains me; *es schmerzt mich*, or more commonly *ich schmerze* I am perspiring; *es verlangt mich* (sometimes *mir*; see 262. II. B. *d*) *nach* (w. dat.), or *zu* + infinitive, I long for or to, or *ich verlange nach*; *es rundert mich* I wonder, am surprised; *es wurmt mich* (or now less commonly *mir*) it vexes me inwardly.

b. Those that take a dative of the person: *es ahnt mir* (earlier in the period also *mich*) I have a presentiment; *es ist mir befehr*, common in colloquial language in the expression *Ich weiß selber*

nicht recht, wie mir befehrt ist (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, XIII), or Ich weiß nicht, wie ich befehrt bin I am sorely puzzled; es beliebt *it pleases* in certain set expressions, as wie es Ihnen beliebt *as you please*, also es geliebt *it pleases* in a few expressions, as geliebt es Gott *if God wills*, geliebt's den Göttern (Grillparzer's *Libussa*, 2); es dämmert mir *it dawns* upon my mind; es denkt mir, see 262. II. A. *c* and B. *d*; es eilt mir I am in a hurry, es eilt Ihnen ja auf einmal ganz gewaltig, Herr, mir gute Nacht zu wünschen (Wilbrandt's *Vater Robinson*, II. chap. ii), also ich habe Eile and es pressiert mir: Aber es ist doch besser, als daß Sie bis morgen warten müssen, wenn es Ihnen schon so pressiert (Spielhagen's *Faustulus*, p. 60), or ich bin pressiert; es efelt mir (also mich) vor (w. dat.) I am disgusted with, I loathe; es fällt mir ein *it occurs to me*; es fehlt mir an (w. dat.) I lack; es gefällt mir in I find pleasure in: es gefällt mir in Berlin; es geht mir gut *it fares well with me*; es gelingt mir + infin. w. zu I succeed in, &c.; es genügt mir *it suffices, satisfies me*; es graut, grauelst (gräuelst), graufelt (gräufelt), graußt, grußelt mir or mich (vor w. dat.) or ich graue, grau[e]le, &c. mich (vor) I shudder (at), es ist, wird mir angst, bange, or sometimes ich bin angst (originally a substantive, now sometimes construed as a predicate adjective) and more commonly ich bin bange (originally an adverb, now quite commonly felt as an adjective), bist du bange? (Otto Ernst's *Jugend von heute*, 4, 6), or es bangt mir or mich I am, am getting anxious, afraid, es bangt mir or mich für (um) mein Leben, meinen Freund, vor dem Tode, or ich bange mich or ich bange für etwas (or einen) or vor etwas; es liegt mir daran *it is of importance to me*; es mißfällt mir *it displeases me*; es nügt or nützt mir *it is of use to me*; es rappelt ihn or more commonly bei ihm *something is wrong with him in his upper story*; es scheint mir *it seems to me*; es schwant mir, daß I have a feeling or presentiment that; es schwindelt mir (sometimes mich) I am giddy, dizzy; es schmeckt mir I like it; sein in connexion with certain adjectives and adverbs, as es ist mir kalt, warm I am cold, warm, es ist mir schwach I feel faint, es ist mir übel I feel sick at the stomach, es ist mir wohl zu Mut I am in good humor, es ist mir lieb I am glad; es steht mir frei + infinitive w. zu I am at liberty to; es steht mir an + infinitive w. zu *it is becoming for me to*; es tut or ist mir leid I am sorry; es träumt mir (only rarely mich), or ich träume I dream; es verschlägt mir nichts *it is quite immaterial to me*; es widert mir vor etwas, or etwas zu tun I loathe something, or to do something, also with acc.: Doch es widert mich (Hebbel's *Nibelungen*, III, v, 14).

B. *a*. The construction *a* and *b* under A may be varied by changing the order, either placing the dat. or acc. object before and the es after the verb, or by thus inverting the object but suppressing the es: es graut mir, or mir graut es, or mir graut. Some verbs only take the es in the inverted word-order, when no other modifiers follow: Ihn jammert es *It causes him pity*, but Ihn jammert des Volkes *He pities the people*. A number of the verbs describing a state of mind or body do not take the es at all in the inverted order: Mich dünkt, er wird alt. Mich hungerte. The es is sometimes lacking in the subordinate clause, especially in set expressions: Selig sind die da hungert und dürstet nach der Gerechtigkeit (Matth. v. 6). Es ist, als ob jemand anders das Wasser trinkt, nach dem mich dürstet (Spielhagen's

Sonntagskind, II, 5). *Es* ist nicht kalt, wie mich dünkt (M. Heyne, *Wörterbuch*). Wie mir efelt . . . wie mir efelt! (delle Grazie's *Vineta*). Notice also the sentence from Telmann in A. b, above.

Note. In earlier periods of the language such verbs did not take a formal subject. Thus the omission of the *es* in the inverted order is the survival of a once general usage. In modern German the tendency is to seek out a formal subject for a verb and in lieu of a definite one to make use of the indefinite *es*.

b. Observe that, though the impersonal construction may sometimes be replaced by the personal, as in *Es friert ihn*, or *er friert* *He is freezing*, sometimes there is a sharp distinction between them. The impersonal construction indicates that the force exerted comes from without, while the personal subject indicates that the act comes from the subject: *Er friert und hungert aus Geiz* *He freezes and goes hungry from pure stinginess*. Here the impersonal construction could not be used.

5. An impersonal construction with *es* either expressed or understood is found in the passive of verbs that govern the gen. or dat., and with many other intransitives, an idiom that is quite foreign to our language. Note the following points:

A. In transferring a sentence from the active to the passive, the acc. as in English becomes nom., but the gen., dat., and a prep. phrase remain unchanged and the subject becomes *es* expressed or understood: (active) *er spottet meiner*; (passive) *es wird meiner gespottet*, or *meiner wird gespottet*; *er schmeichelt mir*, *es wird mir von ihm geschmeichelt*, or *mir wird von ihm geschmeichelt*. *Er schickte mich nach dem Arzt* *He sent me for the physician*. *Es ist nach dem Arzt geschickt worden* *The physician has been sent for*. *Ich habe an ihn geschrieben* *I have written to him*. *Es ist an ihn geschrieben worden* *He has been written to*. When the agent is not expressed as in the last sentence, this impersonal passive, as in B below, represents an activity only in a general way without reference to a definite agent. For fuller description of this construction, see 258. 1.

B. The impersonal passive of such intransitives as have no object at all and such transitives as are used like intransitives without an object does not represent the subject (see a, below) as acted on, but denotes in quite a general way an activity or a state in and of itself without reference to a definite subject, and with no reference whatever to a direct object: *Es wird gelaufen* *There is running going on*; *Es wurde immer viel geplaudert, geschertzt und gelacht* *There was always a good deal of chatting, joking and laughing*. *Oben wird getanzt* *There is dancing going on upstairs*. *Es wird noch geschlafen* *Some people are still asleep*. *Für den lieben König und Herrn wird* [personal passive] *alles getan, wird* [impersonal passive] *treulich gekämpft, wird* [impers.] *willig geblutet, wird* [impers.] *freudig in den Tod gegangen, für ihn wird* [impers.] *mehr als gestorben: für ihn werden* [pers.] *starken Herzens auch die Kinder geopfert* (Vilmar's *Literaturgeschichte*). *Man muß Soldat sein für sein Land oder aus Liebe zu der Sache, für die gekochten wird*.

a. In principal propositions *es* can only stand as the first word in this construction, and also that in A, and drops out when some other word takes

the first place. It is omitted as a rule in subordinate clauses with transposed word-order.

b. This construction can only be used with intransitives which express an activity or condition that stands in a relation to a free moral agent: *Es wird gegessen, geschlafen* They (indefinite) are eating, sleeping, but not *Es wird gefunkelt, geblitzt, getauscht* There is a sparkling, it is lightening, there is a rushing of water.

c. In certain set expressions a trans. verb and its object are conceived of as together forming the idea of an activity, and hence the verb with its object, both together being treated as a simple intrans., may form this impersonal passive: *Es wurde Regel* (acc. pl.) *geschoben* There was playing at ninepins going on. *Raslos wurde fortgewirft, gewaffnet, geübt, gekleidet und Verwundete* (acc. pl.) *geheilt* (Kohlrausch). *Unter diesen wurde fleißig Karten gespielt, gemäßigte Parkpromenaden gemacht, den Tafelfreuden gehuldigt und unabsehbar viel „Kannegeessen“* (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!* III). *In den Zwischenpausen auf dem Schulhofe wurde nur noch Soldaten gespielt* (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, xv).

6. In many idioms the impersonal construction is found: *Es kommt darauf an, ob* (with a following subordinate clause) It depends upon whether. *Es geschieht ihm recht* It serves him right. *Was gibt's?* What's the matter? *Mit seiner Frömmigkeit ist es nicht weit her* His piety doesn't amount to much.

PARTICLES.

220. A particle is a word that cannot be inflected at all. Particles are divided into adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and interjections, but these classes cannot always be sharply defined, as many prepositions and conjunctions are also reckoned among adverbs.

Note. Particles are in most part fossilized case forms, being either simple cases of nouns, or pronouns, or a case with a governing preposition. These case forms are in part still discernible, as will be seen in the following articles. Also the different oblique cases of real nouns are often used adverbially instead of adverbial particles, or as prepositions instead of pure prepositions. A small number of adverbs derived from nouns and especially pronouns have forms that cannot be brought into relation with known case forms.

ADVERBS.

221. Definition. The adverb (i. e. belonging to a verb) is true to its name, a particle principally used to modify the meaning of a verb, but it may also modify an adjective or another adverb: *Der Sturm tobt sehr; ein sehr heftiger Sturm; ein sehr heftig tobender Sturm.*

a. The adverb is often used alone without reference to a verb, adjective, or other adverb: *herein!* come in! *vornwärts!* forward! *auf, auf, Kameraden!*

THE FUNCTION AND FORM OF ADVERBS AND ADJECTIVES COMPARED.

222. 1. The adverb borders very closely in its nature upon the adjective. It modifies a verb, adjective, or other adverb in the same manner as an adjective modifies a noun. Thus in general out of any adjective an adverb can

be formed, and there results a large number of parallel forms—an inflected one modifying a noun and an uninflected one modifying a verb, adjective, or other adverb.

2. The adverb has usually exactly the same form as the uninflected form of the adjective. Only in earlier periods of the language were they distinguished in form. Thus as the adverb has to-day usually the same form as the predicate adjective, and as both often approach each other closely in nature, the boundary between their respective functions is not always sharply defined. Hence an adverb is often used for an adjective, where there is no corresponding adjective. Many adverbs which are now used adjectively were originally used as true adverbs, modifiers of a verb, and did not take on adjective function until after the verb (i.e. participle) had been dropped and they themselves stood alone in the predicate, and were felt as the real predicate complement: *Der Finger ist ab(geschlagen)*. It will be noticed in the articles below that these adverbs assumed adjective function first in the predicate. That they later were also used attributively and have taken on adjective inflection is only a natural development. The following cases of interchange of function, or form, or of both between adjectives and adverbs occur:

A. An adverb or adverbial phrase often takes on adjective function when there is no corresponding adjective:

a. In the predicate to express rest in a place or a condition, often with the verb *sein*, and sometimes as objective predicate after the verbs *lassen* and *wissen*, and sometimes when no verb is expressed: *Er ist da*. *Die Tür ist zu*. *Ich weiß, daß ihn dort* I know that he is there, leave him there. *Hier [ist] der ergrimmte Feldherr, dort [ist] die Fürchterliche* (Schiller's *Jungfrau von Orleans*, 2, 6). *Er ist zufrieden* (lit. *in peace*).

b. In the predicate to express motion to or from a place, lit. or figuratively, usually with the verb *sein*: *Sie sind fort* They are gone. *Die Winterzeit ist zwar (h)erein (in)*. *Er ist von dort* He is from that place. *Er ist aus (from) Frankreich*. *Es ist aus mit ihm* It is all over with him.

c. In the predicate to express time: *Es war im März*. *Das Konzert ist aus*. *Das ist nun vorbei*.

d. Attributively, following the noun that it limits, in the case of those classes of adverbs described in *a*, *b*, *c*. *Der Mann da* the man yonder; *der da oben* He on high; *der Berg dort* the mountain yonder; *die Fahrt hierher* the journey to this place; *die Aussicht auf den Fluß*; *ein Wort fürs Herz*; *der Baum drüben*; *die Kämpfe in den Jahren 1813-15*, &c.

e. Sometimes in the predicate, in case of adverbs of manner after *sein* and sometimes *werden*: *Es ist so, anders* It is thus, different. *Es ist umsonst, or vergebens* It is in vain. *Er ist rechts, links* He is right-handed, left-handed. *Er wird mir zuwider* He is becoming disagreeable to me. *Es ist mir weh zu Mut* I feel sore at heart.

f. In dialect or popular language in case of an adverb of manner, when it stands before a noun in the attributive relation: *Es gibt so Mänschen* (i.e. girls), *die hübsch weiße Schnäbel haben* (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. i).

g. In the superlative (112. 3. B) in the predicate, instead of a superlative adjective: *Der Sturm war am heftigsten gegen Abend*.

B. As a number of adverbs (as those in A, *a*, *b*, *c*, *e*) could stand as an adjective in the predicate, it was only a natural development for them to assume adjective function also in the attributive relation. Thus *nahe*, *fern*, *selten*, *zufrieden*, *vorhanden*, *beiden*, *einzelnen*, *täglich*, *ungefähr*, *teilweise*, *anderweit*, *weh*, &c., have developed into full adjectives with adjective inflection. Other adverbs which have not proceeded so far in this development are thus used in dialect and occasionally appear in the literary language: *Ich mußte also den ganzen Tag Einladungen an allerhand uninteressante und zuwiderre* (see A. *e*) *Menschen verfassen* (Hermann Bahr in *Theater*, chap. ix). Dialect goes much

farther, and uses other adverbs adjectively: ein *zu*es or *zu*enes Fenster a closed window; der *hin*ene Stuhl the broken chair, &c. Notice here that the adverbs *zu* and *hin* usually become *zu*en and *hin*en in adj. function. Quite a number of other adverbs can also in the literary language take on adjective function and inflection when they add the suffix *ig*; see 245. II. 9. 2. B.

C. In the case of verbal nouns in *-ung* and nouns denoting agents in *-er* the adjective in fact fills the office of the adverb, as these nouns have in reality the meaning and force of verbs. Thus in *eine gute Erzählung* a good story and *ein guter Erzähler* a good story-teller the adjective marks the effectiveness of an action and not the quality of an object. In some cases such expressions may be ambiguous, as the adjective may also refer to the author of the action, and not the action. Hence such expressions cannot be freely formed. We may say *ein guter Beobachter, Redner, Reiter, Schachspieler, Schwimmer, &c.*, but not *ein schöner Schreiber, &c.* In such cases in German we must usually take recourse to compound nouns: *der Frühaufsteher* or *Frühauf* early riser, *Schönschreiber* good penman, *Feinschmecker* one with a fine sense of taste, *Langschläfer* late sleeper, &c.

D. In dialect the adverb standing before an adjective is often erroneously taken for an adjective, and hence assumes adjective inflection: *ein ganzer* (instead of *ganz*) *guter Mann*.

E. The adverb has in N.H.G. given up in the positive and comparative the special form which it had in earlier periods, and assumed the exact form of the predicate adjective. However, in poetry, elevated diction, and in case of a few isolated adverbs even in prose we still find occasionally the old adverbial form; see *Note*. In the superlative the adverb has in N.H.G. developed new special forms (see 114), one of which is, however, also used adjectively in the predicate (see 112. 3. B).

Note. In M.H.G. the positive of the adverb was often distinguished from the adjective by the ending *e*, and even to-day some adverbs have alongside of their short form also the M.H.G. form in *e*, especially *lange*, *ferne*, *gerne*, *stille*, and in poetry and elevated diction also others as *zurück*e, &c. In M.H.G. some adverbs were distinguished from the uninflected form of mutated adjectives by taking no mutation, and this usage is still found in the classics, and even to-day in poetry: *Wir haben keine Magd; muß kochen, fegen, stricken | und nähen, und laufen früh und spät* (now *spät*).—Goethe's *Faust*, 3111–2. *Was beginnt ihr morgen früh?* (for *früh*) (Geibel). All feeling for this differentiation of form has in general disappeared, so that in the few cases in prose where double forms, one for the adverb, one for the adjective, still exist, each form has taken on a different meaning: *schon* *already*, but *schön* *beautiful*; *fast* *almost*, but *fest* *firm*. *Schön* and *fest* are now also used adverbially and then take the meaning of the adjectives *schön* and *fest*—*beautifully, firmly*. As here in case of *schön* and *schön*, *fast* and *fest*, so also, in general, related forms which have become separated from each other in speech-feeling may soon drift apart in meaning. For cases of the survival of the older meaning of *schön*, see 223. II. 3. *a* and XI. A. *e* and *j*. In M.H.G. the comparative of the adverb differed from the uninflected comparative form of the adjective in that it lacked mutation. For a survival of this older usage see 117. 1. *d*.

CLASSIFICATION OF ADVERBS.

223. Adverbs and adverbial constructions may be divided according to their meaning into the following classes:

I. ADVERBS OF PLACE which fall into the following subdivisions, indicating:

1. Rest in a place near the speaker: *hier* here and *hie* in early N.H.G., and still used in poetry, also in prose, in the set expression *hie und da* here and there; *hier* accompanied by other adverbs which mark some place near the speaker more accurately, as *hier oben* here above, *hier unten* here

below, *hier außen* outside here, here in a foreign land, *hier üben* (always contracted; see below) here on this side (of the ocean, river, question, &c.), *hier vorne* here in front, written together in *hienie'den* here below, on earth, &c.; contractions of the preceding, as *hoben* for *hie oben*, *haußen* for *hie außen*, were formerly in use, but are now common only in dialect except *hüben* for *hie üben*: *Wackere Männer standen hüben und drüben* Brave men stood on this side (of the question) and on the other side.

2. Rest or motion near the speaker according to the verb used, in adverbs compounded of *hier* and some prep. (see 141. §. A. c for the accent): *hieran* near this, *hierbei* by this, *hierauf* upon this, *hierunter* under this, *hieraus* out of this, *hierin* in this, *hierüber* over this, concerning this, *hierum* around this, *hierzu* to this, to this end, *hierneben* beside this; with preposition preceding and written apart: *von hier* or (in elevated diction) *von hinnen* from here, &c.

3. Motion *toward* the speaker either in a general way expressed by *her* or in a specific way expressed by a preposition in composition with *her*, very frequently with contraction, as (*he*)*run'ter*, (*he*)*raus'*, (*he*)*rein'* (the one prep. in changes its form to *ein* in these adverbial compounds), (*he*)*rü'ber*, *hervor'*, (*he*)*rum'*, *herzu'*, *hernie'der*, (*he*)*ran'*, *herbei'*, (*he*)*rauf'*, (*he*)*rab'*; with preceding prep. and adverb, as *von oben her*, *von oben herunter*; the indefinite *irgend weher* from somewhere, &c.: *Komm her* Come here. *Er steigt von der Anhöhe herunter* He is descending from the height (towards the speaker). *Kommen Sie herein* Come in (the room where I am). *Der Regen strömt aus den Wolken herab*. *Er muß gleich wieder von oben* (upstairs) *herunter kommen*.

a. In many cases the idea of motion towards the speaker contained in *her* disappears, and then this particle simply means *motion or rest with reference to some other person or thing* which is represented as the point of departure, centre of attraction, or as itself being in motion, sometimes implying in case of motion that the person preceding or following the person in question keeps step with him or goes at the same rate of speed, sometimes implying that the one party is in pursuit of the other: *Er ist von Berlin her* He is from Berlin. *Sie standen alle neugierig um ihn her*. *Der Heibuck läuft neben dem Wagen her*. *Die Musik geht vor, der Troß hinter dem Zuge her*. *Sie waren schnell hinter* (in hot pursuit of) *dem Ausreißer her*. *Er ist sehr hinter dem Gelde her* He is after money.

It sometimes represents an action merely as proceeding in a given way without reference to direction toward a definite object: *Es geht lustig her* They are having a gay time. In N.G. colloquial language the force of *her* has become so faint that its original meaning is now no longer felt, and hence it is even used instead of *hin* to denote motion from the speaker: *Gehen Sie rüber* (for *herüber* instead of the literary *hinüber*) und *fordern Sie ihn auf*, er soll den Wiesenweg sofort freigeben (Halbe's *Haus Rosenhagen*, iii, p. 124).

4. Motion *from* the speaker either in a general way expressed by *dar* (see D, below) or more commonly *hin* or in a specific way expressed by a prep. in composition with *hin*, very frequently with contraction, as (*hi*)*nan'*, (*hi*)*nauf'*, (*hi*)*nab'*, (*hi*)*nun'ter*, (*hi*)*naus'*, (*hi*)*nein'* (the one prep. in changes its form in these adverbial compounds to *ein*), (*hi*)*nü'ber*; with preceding adverb, as *oben hin* superficially, touching upon a topic lightly in passing, *oben hinaus'* (see example below), *irgend wehin'* somewhere: *Geh rechts hin* Turn to the right. *Er vollteerte einen Stein in die Tiefe hinab* He rolled a stone with a great crash into the chasm below. *Ich weiß nicht, worauf er hinaus will* I do not know what he is driving at. *Er hat sich nur so ebenhin darüber geäußert* He did not express himself fully concerning the matter. *Er will eben hinaus* He is haughty, gives himself airs.

A. Besides *hin* also *los* and *zu* can be used with reference to movement towards a goal, but with different shades. *Hin* simply points to the goal, while *zu* implies a lively unceasing exertion to reach the desired end, and *los* emphasizes the beginning of the action, and often implies that up to this time something has prevented action though all was in readiness, and

hence often denotes a *sudden, violent breaking forth*: Nun schießt nur hin, daß es alle wird Now fire away at the mark that the matter (as to who would turn out to be the best marksman) may have an end! Schieß zu! Shoot away with all your skill, and don't stop till you hit it! Immer zu! Go right ahead with all your might! Schieß los! Don't wait longer, fire away! Er hat Jahre lang bedächtig und stetig auf dies Ziel hingearbeitet; wägst du, wenn du nun ohne Bedacht darauf los arbeitest, es ihm gleich tun zu können? Der Zorn des Generals brach los.

B. Hin may not only denote motion *from*, on a level surface, but may also denote movement *downward* towards a point at some distance away from the speaker. In this sense it is synonymous with unter, nieder, and herab or hinab, herunter or hinunter, according to the relation to the speaker.

a. Hin simply denotes direction downward toward a point at some distance from the speaker, nieder without any reference to the speaker emphasizes the idea that the direction is from above downward, unter adds to the idea of nieder that in the course of the downward motion the object disappears below something: Der Apfel fiel auf die Erde hin or nieder. Ein ins Wasser geworfener Stein sinkt nieder or (to express out of sight, below the surface) unter. Von dem Augenblick an, wo ein Gestirn kulminiert, seinen Höhepunkt erreicht hat, sinkt es nieder; erst wenn es anfängt unter den Horizont zu treten, und dem Gesichtskreis zu entschwinden, sinkt es unter.

b. Moreover, nieder seems more suitable for elevated diction where the idea of slow and gradual motion enters into it: [Der Schiffende] sieht die Berge schon blau, die Scheidenen, sieht in das Meer sie nieder sinken (Goethe).

c. (Hi)nab' or (he)rab' simply denote motion downward, while hinun'ter or herun'ter add to this conception that the whole distance in question is passed over: Er glitt einige Stufen herab, kam dann ins Stürzen und fiel so die ganze Treppe herunter. Er läßt sich herab He condescends (lets himself down a little), but Er ist in seinen Vermögensverhältnissen ganz heruntergekommen He is in very straitened circumstances (dropped clear down from wealth to poverty).

C. (Hi)nan' with a prep. denotes a general movement forward on a plane surface with the intention of approaching something, with an adverbial acc. it may also add to the idea of pushing forward, the conception of an upward movement, and can refer to the whole distance in question or a part, while hinauf' denotes only movement upward, and implies usually that the whole distance in question is passed over: Wir ritten an den Feind hinan. Er fuhr den Strom hinan (up stream). Ich stieg die Quabertreppe hinan und trat in eine Vorhalle. Er geht den Berg hinan (is ascending). Er geht manchmal den Berg hinauf (to the top). Er ist auf das Dach hinaufgestiegen.

a. (He)ran' denotes near approach to or movement toward the speaker on a plane surface or with upward movement, while herauf' implies direction toward the speaker, but only with upward movement: Ich winkte ihn zu mir heran. Er kletterte zu mir heran. Kommen Sie herauf Come upstairs (where I am).

b. An and (he)ran' differ in that an denotes a contact or simply movement forward or upward, while heran denotes a movement toward a definite goal: Man rennt unvorsichtig an einen Pfosten an, but Er rennt ans Ziel heran. Das Wasser schwillt an, but Es schwillt zu einer gewissen Höhe heran.

D. In early N.H.G. dar (O.H.G. dara) was used with the force of dahin, i. e. with reference to a definite place: Die Diener aber kamen dar (Acts v. 22). To-day it is employed less definitely with the force of hin, but is used only in a few compounds: darbieten, darbringen, dargeben, darlegen, darreichen, darstellen, dartin.

5. Motion, action, or change in a figurative or moral sense, without expression of a definite direction to or from the speaker, or at least with no conscious feeling of such on the part of the speaker, is always expressed by her simple and in compounds: Er blickt auf uns herab He looks down on us.

Er hat den Preis herabgesetzt He has lowered the price. Er ist (he)reingefallen He has been taken in (lit. fallen in). Thus also many other figurative expressions: ein Buch herausgeben to edit a book, jemand von oben herab behandeln to treat somebody as an inferior, einen herunter machen to take somebody down (from his high horse).

6. Rest or motion with the idea of distance from the speaker :

a. Rest in a place at some distance from the speaker, as *derten* (poetic) or *dert* yonder; in connection with other adverbs, as *dert oben up yonder*, *dert unten down yonder*, &c.

b. Motion from the speaker to some point distant: *Dorthin* yonder, to that place, with accent upon the first syllable to emphasize the place and on the second syllable to emphasize motion; *dert (hi)nauf up yonder*, *dert (hi)unter*, &c. Exs.: *Dort'hin zu sieht man noch Türme von Madrid* Away in that direction, one still sees spires of Madrid. *Da wird dorthin' das Ohr lieblich gezogen* The ear is charmed and attracted in that direction. *Dort hinunter müssen wir* We must go down yonder.

c. Motion toward the speaker from some point distant: *Dorthier* (accented as *derthin*; see *b*, above), or *von dorthier*, or *von derten* (poetic) from yonder, &c. *Ich komme dert'her*. — *Kommst du wirklich dert'her?* I come from that place. Do you really come from there?

7. Rest or motion without expressing definitely nearness to the speaker or distance.

A. *Da* there, *dafelbst'* (demon. and rel.) at that place, at which place, *daher'*, *einher'* along, *von da* from there, *daher'* (accented upon the last syllable except to emphasize especially the place), or *von daher'*, or (in elevated diction) *von dannen* from that place, *dahin* (accented in the same manner as *daher'*) or in early N.H.G. *dar* (see 4. D, above) to that place: *Er ist schon da*. *Er eilt daher'* He is speeding along. *Ich komme eben daher'*, or *Da komme ich eben her!* *Von Weissenfels?* *Da'her bin ich* Are you from Weissenfels? That is the place I come from. *Da'her kommt die ganze Verwirrung*.

B. *Da* accompanied by adverbs: *da oben up there*, in heaven, *da unten down there*, *da außen out there*, out of doors, *da innen inside there*, *darüber* (usually contracted; see below) over on that side, on the other side of the ocean, in the other world, &c.; the preceding very frequently contracted as *dröben*, *drunten*, *draußen*, *drinnen*, *drüben*, &c.; also with a double *da*, as *da d[a]röben*, *da drunten*, &c.

C. *Da* (dar before a vowel) in composition with prepositions, with accent usually upon the prep., except to especially emphasize the place, hence usually contracted (see 141. 5. A): *d(a)ran'*, *dabei'*, *d(a)rauf'*, *d(a)run'ter*, *d(a)raus'*, *d(a)rein'*, *d(a)rin'*, *d(a)rü'ber*, *davor'*, *dahin'ter*, *dazwisch'en*, *d(a)rum'*, &c. *Er trug eine Kette; daran' war eine alte Münze*. *Ich fahre hie'ran und du fährst da'ran* I'll drive up here and you drive up there.

a. Earlier in the period and still in colloquial and popular language these compounds are separated, and often the *da* is lacking altogether; see 141. 5. A. *b. Note*.

b. The O.H.G. had two forms corresponding to N.H.G. *da*, namely *dara* (now *dar*, still preserved in the group in 4. D, above) and *dār*, the latter of which now takes the place of both in this construction, usually in the reduced form *da*, but in its former full form in compounds the second element of which begins with a vowel: *darin*, &c. The vowel, however, becomes short when the accent is shifted upon the second element: *dā'rin*, but *dārin'*.

D. The relative and interrogative *wo* where, the indefinite *irgendwo* from somewhere, *irgendwo* somewhere, *anderwo* somewhere else, &c.; the relative and interrogative *wo* (wer before a vowel) in compounds, as *woher'* near which, *werun'ter* among which, *wohin'* whither, *woher'* whence, &c., or sometimes demonstrative compounds in their stead: *dabei'*, *darun'ter*, &c.; see 153. 2. B.

Earlier in the period and still in colloquial speech these compounds are separable; see 153. 2. and B thereunder.

a. The O.H.G. had two forms corresponding to N.H.G. *wō*, namely *wār* and *wara*, the *r* of which survives in compounds the second element of which begins with a vowel: *wōrin*, &c. The modern *wō* corresponds in form only to O.H.G. *wār*, but it has taken the place of both the older words, having levelled out the *wa* form except in case of *warum*, which survives alongside of *worum*. The older language often makes no distinction between *worum* and *warum*, using both forms relatively and interrogatively in the sense of *for* or *on account of which, what*: *Erhabner Geist, du gabst mir, gabst mir alles, | warum (now worum) ich bat* (Goethe's *Faust*, Wald und Höhle). *Warum (now worum) soll ich bitten?* (Herder). These forms still occur occasionally in elevated diction without differentiation, but present prose usage distinguishes sharply between the two forms, employing *worum* in the meaning *for* or *on account of which, what*, *warum* as an adverb in the meaning *why*.

E. The adverbs denoting a relative position or direction in space with reference to the speaker: *oben* above, *unten* below, *außen* outside, &c.; *aufwärts* upward, *abwärts* to the side, *heimwärts* homeward, &c.

F. *Weg* away, disappearance in any direction, used only of objects in space, *fort on, forth*, movement forward in time or space, in one continuous direction: *Der Bruder sagt zur Schwester: setze deine Malerei jetzt weg (aside), wir wollen Klavier spielen. Nach einer Stunde aber sagt er: Es ist genug, setze deine Malerei fort (Go on with your painting).* However, this proper distinction is very often disregarded: *Meine Bleistifte kommen mir immer fort* My lead pencils always get away from me, get misplaced.

G. Movement from a place is expressed by *ab* and *aus* with different shades.

a. *Ab* expresses the opposite of *an* and *auf*, hence movement *from a surface*, while *aus*, which is the opposite of *in*, expresses movement *out from within* something: *Wer auf dem Pferde sitzt, steigt ab*, but *Wer im Wagen sitzt, steigt aus*.

b. What moves from the surface of a thing leaves it altogether, but what comes out from within a thing may still remain in close connection with it; hence *ab* and *aus* may sometimes differ materially: *Er bog links vom Wege ab* (left the road entirely), but *Er bog aus* (turned to one side, out), *um nachher wieder in den Weg einzubiegen. Wer von einem Grundsatz ausgeht* (Whoever is guided by a certain principle) *hält an demselben fest, bei allem, was daraus folgt, but Wer von dem Grundsatz abgeht, verläßt ihn.*

c. *Ab* expresses sometimes, from the idea of motion from a surface, superficiality or incompleteness, while *aus* expresses completeness: *Die vom Wurm gernagte Rose blüht ab*, ohne daß sie ausblüht.

H. As *ab* and *aus* (see G. a, above) express motion *from*, they also may naturally express *separation*, to which, however, a third adverb or inseparable verbal prefix must be added, namely, *ent*. *Ab* denotes surface separation, *aus* separation from a position within something, and *ent* a separating something from that which entirely envelops it and is closely attached or intimately related to it. One says: *Ich balge das Tier ab*, when he is thinking of taking *off* the pelt, *Ich balge es aus*, when he is thinking of taking the animal *out* of its pelt, *Ich entbalge es* when he is thinking of the rather difficult task of stripping off the tightly fitting pelt. *Ich entgehe einer drohenden Gefahr, die mich fast schon gepackt hielt. Ent* represents also a more complete separation than *aus*: *Wer sich aus dem Staate in den Hausrock geworfen, hat sich ausgekleidet, ohne doch entkleidet zu sein, wie der, der ins Bad steigen will.*

The difference between *aus* and *ent* is sometimes only a grammatical one. *Aus* is used in an adverbial phrase, and *ent* is compounded with the verb: *Und unsere Reisenden entstiegen ihrem Waggon* (Fontane's *Cécile*, chap. vii), or *stiegen aus dem Waggon*. Sometimes *aus* is used where there is only one simple case object, and *ent* where there are two simple case objects, a dative and an accusative: *Der Cooperator zog die Lade heraus und entnahm*

ihr einen großen, halb beschriebenen Bogen (Ebner-Eschenbach's *Glaubenslos*, chap. ix).

I. The word *together* is represented in German by three words with different shades of meaning. *Beisam'men* is only used with verbs expressing rest or an activity which is confined to a given place, and never with verbs of motion to or from, and hence it merely denotes that a number of objects are found in the same enclosed space, or in a merely local sense near together. *Mitsam'men* adds to this idea that of common participation in an activity with mutual relations, and *zusam'men*, much more commonly used than either, may contain the meaning of either or of both: An meinem Geburtstag waren alle Freunde beisammen. In den Spinnstuben arbeiten viele Mädchen beisammen (working in one room, but entirely independently at different wheels). Es flogen wohl die Wellen mitsammen in das Meer, | es flogen wohl mitsammen die Vögel drüber her (Geibel's *Die junge Nonne*). Wir fahren mitsammen (H. Hoffmann's *Bogislaw*). Man hat sie in ein Grab zusammen gelegt (here beisammen could not be used). Zwei Schriftsteller arbeiten zusammen an einem Buch.

8. General diffusion throughout, or extension through or around a given space: überall' everywhere, durch'weg or durchweg' *throughout*, hence usually as an adverb of degree *entirely*, rings round about, umher' around, nirgends nowhere.

Caution. Do not confound herum' around (in a closed circle, or in a turn or curve bending around towards the speaker) with umher' around, about (from one place to another): Mancher zieht weit in der Welt umher *Many travel about considerably in the world*, but Die Erde bewegt sich um die Sonne herum *The earth circles around the sun*. Er kam um die Ecke herum uns entgegen. The use of umher, however, is more confined to a refined style, and hence in common language herum has largely usurped its place: Ich haue mich mit euch nicht herum I shall not fight with you fellows. Thus also: sich herumzanken to fuss about, sich herumstreiten to dispute about.

9. Rest or motion *within* a given space are expressed by in, and motion into a place is expressed by ein, both of which words are only found in compounds, especially with adverbs belonging to the preceding classes, verbs, and sometimes with substantives: Ich habe mich darin' geirrt *I have been mistaken in that*, but Mische dich nicht darein' *Do not mix yourself up in the affair*. Worin' hat er sich geirrt? Worein' hat er sich gemischt? Der in'liegende Brief *the inclosed letter*, but Er legte den Brief ein *He inclosed the letter*. Feldein' into the fields, waldein' into the woods, ha'se'n ein (accent shifting forward in dissyllabics) into the harbor, jahraus' jahrein' year in year out; Inhaber *bearer*, Inhalt *contents*, but Eintritt *entrance*, Einfuhr *importation*, &c.

a. In M.G. and N.G. dialects in is used for both in and ein. Schlagen Sie in (instead of ein) (Rauchhaupt in Hauptmann's *Der rote Hahn*, Act 4). From this failure on the part of dialect to distinguish different forms for the different meanings there have also arisen in the literary language several cases where the two forms have been confounded, ein being used for in: eingedenk *mindful of*, Eingeweide *entrails*, and earlier in the period still others.

In some dialects we find the opposite usage — ein for in: Jenseits der Alpen steht ein Grab, | gegraben am grünen Rheine, | drei wilde Rosen klüßen drauf, | seine Liebe liegt dareine (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Werner's *Lieder aus Welschland*, v). 's wird dir schier drein zu naß sein (Anzengruber's *Wolken und Sonn'schein*, p. 238).

b. Instead of N.H.G. in for the preposition and adverb, M.H.G. had a differentiation of forms, in for the preposition, and inne or innen for the adverb. These adverbial forms are still sometimes found, inne especially in compounds, and innen both in compounds and uncompounded: innehalten, innehaben, innekehren, &c.; d(a)nnen, von innen, &c. In other instances, however, the adverbial forms have been contracted to in, in which case preposition and adverb cannot be distinguished in form: in (prep.) dem Buch; darin

(adv.), common N.H.G. form for M.H.G. *darinne* or *darinnen*. In M.H.G. it had already begun to replace *inne* and *innen*. Later the long forms gradually kept yielding to the contracted one. The form *inne*, as in *darinne*, is now restricted to poetry and popular language, and *innen*, as in *b(a)rinnen*, is only in limited use, though more commonly employed than *inne*. In one meaning, *in the room, in the house*, with reference to some inclosed space, *drinnen* is quite common: *Struppmann* (nach hinten weisend): *Er ist drinnen* (Otto Ernst's *Die Gerechtigkeit*, 2, 4).

c. The words *offen* and *auf* have about the same relation to each other as *in* and *ein*: *Die Tür war offen* *The door was open*, but *Hans machte die Tür auf* *John opened the door*.

10. Place with its varied relations is also expressed by the case of a noun or by a preposition with its dependent noun as follows:

a. Place where or position are expressed, in certain adverbial expressions, by the gen. of a noun (fem. words often ending in *s* after the analogy of masc.) or by some expression formed after the model of such: *gehörigen Orts* before the proper authority, *höhern Orts* before a higher authority, *linker Hand* to the left hand, *allerorts* (see 249. II. 2. A. a) everywhere, *seines Orts* in the proper place, *unterwegs* (an incorrect gen. formed after the analogy of the preceding, now, however, replacing the older correct dat. *unterwege* or in pl. form *unterwegen*) on the way or road, *seinerseits* upon his part, *mütterlicherseits* upon the mother's side, *anderseits* on the other side, *beiderseits* on both sides, *seitens* (now used as a prep. with gen.) upon the part of. *Ich bekam ein Zimmer in der Buchstraße, nächster Tür mit Kings* (next door to King's). *Halben Weges zwischen Brückenberg und der Obermühle* trat er von dem tiefergelegenen Wolschau her auf den eine lange Schräglinie bildenden Fahrweg (Fontane's *Quint*, chap. xiii). *Luoslawski* (name) ließ sich als Reiter erträglich an und hatte den „alten“ Fahrern bald die Kniffe abgesehen, mit denen man beim Stalldienst die Vorgesetzten hintergeht, aber im Fußererzieren fehlte es aller Enden (in every direction, every respect) (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan*?, iv).

Note. Here also belongs *dieserhalb* (M.H.G. *halbe*, f., *side, direction*) *on (from) this side*, but in N.H.G. only used in the derived meaning *on this account*: *Aber . . . weder Ihnen noch Ritt noch sonst irgend einer von meinen wohlgefinnten Freundinnen ist es noch jemals eingefallen, sich mit angemessener Leidenschaft in mich zu verlieben . . . Es fällt mir nicht ein, mich dieserhalb etwa über die Frauen zu beklagen* (H. Hoffmann's *Der Dolch*). *Nur dieserhalb bin ich hier* (Carl Busse). Earlier in the period the form *der'halben* (see Isaiah, xxi. 3), which is also a gen. sing., the old weak gen., was used here. The more common form for to-day is *deshalb*, which is of a different construction, the *des* being the gen. of the demonstrative governed by the prep. *halb*.

b. Separation is expressed by the gen. with certain verbs. For full treatment see 262. II.

c. The use of the simple dative to express place, once frequent, is now rare except in a few common adverbs whose origin is not felt: *allenthalben* (dat. pl. of the M.H.G. *halb side*, preceded by the modifying adjective *all*, which here has an excrescent *t* appended to its regular case ending) *on all sides, everywhere*. For other examples see 140. d. *Note*.

d. In earlier periods and in part still the acc. *heim* *home* is used with verbs of motion to express the goal. The dat. *heime* *at home* was formerly and in dialect is sometimes still used to denote the place of rest or the place where an activity is going on. The modern literary form of the older *heime* is *heim*, and thus dat. and acc. are not now formally distinguished. This has led to the use of *daheim* in the sense of the older *heime*. *Heim* (acc.) and *daheim* (= older *heime*) are in common use in S.G., but are in N.G. more commonly replaced by *nach Hause* and *zu Hause*. The dat. *heim* still lingers on in poetry.

e. The place where is often expressed in colloquial language by the uninflected form of a noun: *Gäße der Schadowstraße ist der Eingang zum Aquarium*.

Wo wohnst Du? Halbkaiserstraße fünfzehn. For the origin of such expressions see 228. I. b.

f. The place where and the goal or destination are more commonly expressed by means of some prep. with its dependent noun: Er sitzt am Tische. Die Kinder gehen zu Bette.

II. ADVERBS OF TIME fall into the following subdivisions, indicating:

I. *Definite time*, expressed by an adverb, the acc. or the uninflected form of a noun, a prep. phrase, or the gen. in case of *derzeit at present* (with a present tense), *at that time* (with a past tense): heute to-day, jetzt now, nun (see A, below) now, noch (in the expression nur noch sometimes replaced by mehr, which in spite of the protests of certain grammarians is still used here in a meaning once common, namely *further, yet, but*) yet and a number of derived meanings (see B, below); morgen (originally a dat., but now felt as an acc.) to-morrow, diesen Morgen or heute morgen this morning, diesen Abend or heute abend this evening, diese Woche this week, vorige Woche last week, Montag Abend Monday evening, Montag, Donnerstag, Montag den 9. September. Schließlich verabredete ich **Ostern** 1899 mit A. Secin, der mich **Herbst** 1893 zu einer erneuten Besprechung über Notwelsch hier besucht hatte, gemeinsame Arbeit, aber der Tod entriß den schon damals schwer leidenden Gelehrten **Pfingsten** 1899 (Kluge's *Notwelsch*, Vorw.). Herbst, Ostern, Pfingsten may now be felt as accusatives, but they in fact represent the older prepositional expressions given below, which are still much more frequently used.

To mark time exactly, the hour is often accompanied by uninflected Schlag or Punkt: Schlag (or Punkt) sieben seven o'clock sharp.

With prepositions: übermorgen (with the accent shifted upon the first element, as the word often stands in contrast to simple morgen) day after to-morrow, gegen Abend towards evening, heute über acht Tage a week from to-day, in vierzehn Tagen in two weeks, im Herbst des nächsten Jahres, zu (at) Ostern, zu Pfingsten.

Nur mehr instead of nur noch: Wir sahen den Park nur mehr als einen dunkeln Fleck in der Ferne liegen (Stifter). Bis zum Ausbruch des Morgens hatten die Flammen geledert, nun lag nur mehr ein Haufen von rauchendem Schutt (Jensen's *Das Bild im Wasser*, p. 410).

The gen. may be used to denote the definite period *within which* in answer to the question *how often or how much*; see IV. 2. B. d, below.

A. Nun represents the present in the light of its relation to the past and its complications in the present, but jetzt calls attention only to the present: Ich habe mein Versprechen erfüllt, nun erfüllen Sie das Ihrige, und tun Sie es jetzt I have fulfilled my promise, now (since I have done this) fulfil yours, and do so now. Jetzt regnet es *It is raining now*, but Was ist nun zu tun? What is to be done now (under these circumstances)?

B. a. Noch (or negatively noch nicht) means primarily *just now*, now, however, usually indicates a continuation at the present time of an action or a state of things, or in connection with a past or future tense a point in the past or future at which some act or condition was or will be continuing, or was or will be yet possible. It is translated by *yet, as yet, still, up till now, only or but* (with a past tense): Das alte Haus steht heute noch (still). Damals lebte mein Vater noch (still). Er befand sich noch nicht wohl (not well yet), als ich ihn zuletzt sah. Das wird in Europa auch noch Mode werden That will even yet become a fashion in Europe. Noch vor einem Jahre (only a year ago, or but a year ago), da er sich doch gar nicht um das Gemeinwohl kümmerte, war es das süßeste Traumbild seines Ehrgeizes, einmal Rathherr zu werden.

b. From the idea of continuation it has developed the idea of intensity, multiplication, addition, repetition, survival, contrast to a former situation:

noch einmal so schön twice as beautiful, noch einmal so viel as much again, noch größer larger still, noch zwei Jahre two years more, noch mehr still more, noch einmal once more. Haben Sie nicht noch Mittel? Have you no means left? Der Hund knurrt nur noch ganz leise, er bellt nicht mehr im Kaufladen und denkt nicht von weitem ans Beißen.

c. From the idea of continuing to a certain point of time comes the idea of reaching a certain limit in a scale or a certain goal: Das geht noch an That will work all right up to this point. Du unterstehst dich noch, ihn zu entschuldigen? You even dare to excuse him?

d. Noch is much used in concessive clauses: Sei es auch noch so wenig be it ever so little; sei er noch so vorsichtig be he ever so cautious.

e. It is often translated by *very*: noch diese Woche this very week. Noch am Abend nach der Schlacht (on the very evening after the battle) ließ Graf Otto die gefangenen Ritter . . . enthaupten.

2. *Indefinite time*, expressed by an adverb, the gen. or in a few cases the dat. of a noun, or a prep. phrase: dann und wann now and then, bisweilen, zuweilen sometimes; heutigestags in these times, jederzeit at any time, always, dieser Tage recently (with a past tense), within a few days (with future tense), letzterzeit, letzterer Zeit, leztens, leztthin, or leztlich of late, nächster Tage some time soon, eines Tages one day, eines schönen Tages one fine day, eines Mittwochs on a certain Wednesday; in einer dunkeln Nacht on a dark night, an einem herrlichen Sommermorgen.

In the classical period we still find the following participial gen. construction: Aber so lebten die Herren **währendes Krieges** (*while the war was going on*), als ob ewig Krieg bleiben würde (Lessing's *Minna*, 2, 2). Bitte Sie **währendender Arbeit** mir immer manchmal was zu melden (Goethe's *Briefe*, iv, 169).

a. This genitive is often used in a general indefinite way to designate the time of day in which something happens: Kommst du Nachmittags (sometime in the afternoon) zurück? Nein, ich komme erst Abends (sometime in the evening) zurück. This general designation is often accompanied by a precise date, day, or hour: am 16. Oktober Abends on October the 16th in the evening, um acht Uhr Morgens at about eight in the morning. Ich kam Dienstag Nachts (old gen.; also the acc. or a prep. phrase: Nachts or in der Nacht) an.

Note. The acc. is also often found here, as the idea of definite (see I, above) and that of indefinite time often approach each other. Between gen. and acc., however, there is a slight difference of meaning. The acc. indicates the time approximately by mentioning the day or the date of the action, or it emphasizes the extent, duration of the time, while the gen. emphasizes more the beginning of the period or some point of time in it. Thus Freitag Abend means *Friday evening*, either the given date for an action or a period of time extending throughout that evening, as in Er kam (or arbeitete) Freitag Abend He came (or worked) *Friday evening*, while Freitag Abends *Friday evening* calls especial attention to a particular part of the day, namely evening. Thus also to emphasize a point of time in a given period we say spät Abends or Abends spät late in the evening. Da sind wir **des Abends 6½ Uhr** (at half-past six in the evening) hier glücklich angekommen. However, where the adverb cannot either precede or follow the noun as in the preceding examples, but *must precede* it, the *accusative* of the noun is usually found: heute (or gestern) **abend** this (or yesterday) evening. When an article or a pronominal adjective, particularly a demonstrative, modifies a noun unaccompanied by some adverbial element, the acc. is almost always used to denote a point of time whether definite or indefinite: diesen Morgen this morning, noch diese Woche some time yet this week. Der Herr Leutnant läßt sagen, sie hätten die Nacht ein kleines Mädel bekommen (Ompeda's *Cäcilie von Sarryn*, chap. vii).

b. In elevated discourse the dat. is occasionally found in accordance with older usage instead of the gen. or a prep. phrase: Nächts (old dat., *last night*, *in the night*) ist in unserm Trieb | der gleißend' Wolf gefallen (Uhland's *Graf Eberhard*, 4). Nächten (dat. pl. = Nächts) sah ich ihn im Traume (Weber's *Dreizehn-*

linden). The gen. ending *s* is also added to the dat. pl.: So sind wir nächstens in dies Land gekommen (Sudermann's *Die drei Reiherfedern*, 2, 2).

3. *Relative time*, expressed by an adverb, a gen. in earlier periods, and still in a few expressions, or more commonly by an acc., or a prep. phrase: vorher' before, before that (with reference to another act or time), before hand, vorhin' a few minutes ago, a short time ago, hienauf' hereupon, nachher' (also colloquially hernach') afterwards, seitdem' from that point on, seither' from that point to the present, bis'her' up to the present, schon (see *a*, below); Und des nehesten Tages kamen wir gen Miletos (Acts xx. 15); tags drauf the day after this, tags vorher the day before this, andern Tages the next day, mittlerweile in the meantime; den nächsten Morgen, den Tag drauf, den Tag vorher; am nächsten Morgen, am Tage vorher, am andern Tag, unterdessen in the meantime, indes'sen in the meantime, but now more commonly with adversative force, *however*, *yet*.

a. The adverb schon as explained in 222.2. E. *Note* was originally the adverb corresponding to the adjective schön, and hence meant *beautifully*. This idea led to that of completeness, which was once common, and is still not infrequent. The original idea, however, is now somewhat faded or indistinct. We often translate it by *quite*, *of itself*, *sufficient*, *without going further*: Das war schon (quite) ein ander Ding. Der von Folterqualen gebrochene Körper eines solchen Opfers würde schon (of itself) nur Mitleid erregen. Sie sagten zwar nichts, aber sie hielten doch stille, das war der Verzeihung schon (of itself) ein sicheres Zeichen. Das ist schon gut That will do (enough as it is without going further). The older meaning is also perceptible in the uses described in XI. A. *e* and *j*, below.

The older idea of completeness applied to time led to the newer, now more common meanings *already*, *yet*, *even*, *the very*, *as early as*, *first*, often difficult to translate by any word. In all these meanings it should be noticed that schon often only strengthens some other more important word, and hence is then unaccented: Ist der Brief schon fertig? Is the letter ready yet? but Ist der Brief scho'n fertig? Is the letter ready so soon? Hatte sich der Meister vorher schon (strengthening vorher; translate by *even*) wenig um Haus und Beruf bekümmert, so tat er es jetzt noch viel weniger. Mit furchtbarem Schelten wurden sie hinauf zur Mutter geschickt und die beiden Knaben schon andern Tages (the very next day) dem Schulmeister zur schärferen Zucht übergeben. In Versailles haben nicht nur die Prinzessinnen schon von zehn Jahren (as early as the tenth year of their age), sondern sogar die Puppen ihren Hofstaat. Da muß man schon mit Bieren fahren, in Gold und Seide gekleidet sein, wenn sie es der Mühe wert finden, einen tet zu schlagen You must first be rich enough to ride in a coach and four, &c. Gedä! schon wieder? Hollo! at it again?

4. *Customary time or repeated occurrence*, indicating the time at which something takes place according to custom or habit, or when something is repeated, is usually expressed by the gen. or by a prep. phrase: Ich esse Mittags zu Hause, Abends pflege ich auswärts zu essen. Wirtwech und Sonnabend Nachmittags (every Wednesday and Saturday afternoon) ist kein Unterricht. Des Tags or Tags in the daytime, Vermittags or des Vermittags in the forenoon, Montags Mondays, Nachts (old gen.) or des Nachts (after the analogy of masc. nouns) in the night. Und aller (also acc. here; see IV.2. B, below) Augenblicke muß sie sich jetzt schon hinlegen (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, Act 4) Her health has reached such a state that she must lie down every few minutes. Ein neues Schlagwort nach dem Symbolismus hat man noch nicht, die Franzosen scheinen ihre Pflicht, aller drei Jahre für eins zu sorgen, diesmal nicht erfüllt zu haben (A. Bartels' *Deutsche Dichtung der Gegenwart*, p. 276, 4th edition). Also prepositional constructions are common: am Tage in the daytime, in der Nacht. The prepositional construction is the usual one in im Herbst, im Frühling (but quite commonly Winters or des Winters, Sommers or des Sommers), and in the more accurate designations, as um zehn Uhr, um Mitternacht.

In answer to the question *how often* a given action or event takes place, the gen. (also the acc.) pl., as in the examples from Hauptmann and Bartels. is now quite frequent. In answer to the question *at what time or period* a given action or event takes place, the gen. is also employed, as in the first two examples, but it is thus commonly used only in the sing., and is replaced in the pl. by the acc. or a prep. phrase: Und Arnold war sonst die Vormittage ebensowenig zu Hause, nur daß er sie an den Wochentagen im Revier und des Sonntags im Wirtshause verbrachte (Spielhagen's *Sonntagskind*, I, 3). Sie wußte nicht, weshalb ihr solche Erinnerungen gerade an Sonntag Vormittagen kamen (ib.).

III. ADVERBS OF MANNER (manner, specification, conformity, fitness): so so, leicht easily, schnell fast, &c.

Manner is also expressed by:

a. A noun or adjective in the gen.: derart or dergestalt (see IV. 2. A. c, below) *in such a manner, to such a degree*. So leichten Laufs kommst du nicht fort You will not get off so easily. Wir fahren dritter Klasse (Storm) We travel third class. Sie kamen unverrichteter Sache zurück They came back without accomplishing anything. Er ist eines gewaltigen Todes gestorben. Indem ich nach besten Kräften das Fräulein unterhielt, horchte ich doch stets halben Ohrs auf diesen schwarzen Mohren (Raabe's *Meister Autor*, chap. xxii). Er beugte sich halben Leibes über die Meling vor (Schulze-Smidt's *O Tannebaum*, I). Trocknen Fußes dry-shod, begreiflicherweise as may easily be conceived, glücklicherweise fortunately, notwendigerweise necessarily, törichterweise foolishly, and many similar formations in weise; anerkanntermaßen as generally acknowledged, besagtermaßen as mentioned before, and many similar formations in -maßen (wk. gen. of Maße; see also IV. 2. A. c, below); kurzer Hand or kurzerhand without any formalities, abruptly. Er ließ sich des weiteren darüber aus He explained himself at some length. Ich danke bestens I thank you heartily. The examples in this group might be greatly increased.

To this general head belongs the gen. of specification, once a common construction, but now reduced to a few expressions: Seines Zeichens (with respect to or by trade, profession) ist er Schneider, Jurist. Woher, mein liebes Töubchen? | Woher des Landes? (Gleim) From what land (lit. whence as to land) do you come? Woher des Weges? Whence do you come? Woher der Fahrt? (Lienhard's *Till Eulenspiegel*, Der Fremde). Compare these last sentences with O.H.G.: "Gidua mi h sár nu," quad er, "wís, | wanana lántes thu sís" (Otfrid's *Evangelienbuch*, IV, xxiii. 31). Compare M.H.G.: Der war dës lîbes schœne with So war sie schon seit zehn Jahren, schlank von Leib und hoch von Brust und blank von Augen (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. viii). This gen. was more freely used in early N.H.G.: (Paulus) fand einen Jûden mit namen Aquila | der Geburt (= der Geburt nach) aus Ponto (Acts xviii. 2). This old gen. is still found after certain verbs, adjectives, and participles, although its force is no longer felt; see 260 and 3 thereunder and 262. II. A. In compounds it is still quite common: segensreich, handelsflug, geisteskrank, &c. Compare with M.H.G. ein ellens (= Mutz) rîcher man (*Nibelungenlied*, I. 7). See also 249. II. I. C.

b. A noun or adjective after a preposition: Er sprach mit Gelassenheit. Er hörte mit gespanntem Ohre zu. Die Vögel singen des Morgens am schönsten (114. 1). Pestalozzi war aufs eifrigste (114. 2) bemüht, seinen armen Mitmenschen zu helfen. Er ist seinem Handwerke nach ein Schneider. Es ist sechs nach meiner Uhr. Es taugt zu nichts.

c. A dative of reference indicating the thing with regard to which some statement is made survives in a few set expressions after the verb sein, now limited to pronouns, but in M.H.G. of broader application: Wenn dem so ist If it is thus with respect to that. Ist dem nun so If it is now thus with respect to that. Wie dem auch sei However that may be. Dem sei, wie ihm wolle Let that be as it may. Die Geschichte ist gut; wenn ihr nur so wäre (Raabe's

Höxter und Corvey, chap. ix). In M.H.G. *Wie ist disem mære?* What is the state of things with regard to this story? In all these sentences *es* understood is the subject. Usually this *dat.* must be replaced by a preposition except in case of the few survivals of older usage mentioned above: *Wie ist es mit dieser Geschichte?* (modern expression for the above M.H.G. sentence). There is another somewhat similar dative of reference which is still quite common; see 258. 3. A.

IV. 1. ADVERBS OF DEGREE (degree, order, measure, extent, price): *sehr*, *überaus* very, *höchst*, *äußerst* extremely, *zu* too, *ziemlich* tolerably, *fast* almost, *schier* (see a) well-nigh, entirely, *etwa* or *ungefähr* (in the South also *beiläufig*, which in the North has the meaning of *by the way*, *in passing*) about, *erst* (see b), *nur* (replaced often in the North colloquially by *man*; see b. (2) *Note*) only, *zuerst* first, *viel* much, *wenig* little, *überhaupt* (see c) in general, &c.

a. *Schier*. This word is of double origin, and hence has two different groups of meanings:

(1) *Schier* (M.H.G. *schiere fast, soon*) in early N.H.G. *soon*, now *almost*, confined largely to poetic language.

(2) *Schier* (Old Saxon *skiri clean, pure*) common in N.G. and M.G., as an adverb, *entirely, thoroughly*, as an adjective, *pure, clean, nothing but, sheer*: Das leicht Erungene | das widert mir, | nur das Erzwungene | erregt mich schier (Goethe's *Faust*, II, ll. 5169-73). Gerd blinnte ihn verblut und schier ohne Verständnis an (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. xi). Nun findet man dich und freut sich schier, | da schimpfst du uns Paß und Diebägelichter (Sudermann's *Die drei Reiherfedern*, I, 6). Da ist alles so klar und schier wie . . . in Ihrer jungen siebzehnjährigen Seele (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 34). *Schieres Fleisch* pure meat (i. e. without bones and fat), eine *schiere Unmöglichkeit* a sheer impossibility.

b. The adverb *erst* *first* has a number of derived meanings:

(1) *Not until, not before, no further back than, only, but, once*: Er (der Hund) schlich erst (*not until*) spät nach Hause zurück. Ein stattlicher Holzbau, erst (*only or but*) vor zehn Jahren von Grund aus neu aufgeführt. Und hat er uns erst (*once or only*) am kleinen Finger, so hat er uns auch ganz. Often *still more, much more*: Er ist sehr fleisch und erst seine Frau! Er ist schon erbittert, wie wird er erst toben, wenn er das erfährt! Especially frequent with *recht* in the meaning *all the more*: Ich rief ihm zu, er solle zurückkommen, aber da ließ er erst *recht*.

(2) The adverb *erst* *only* should be distinguished from *nur* *only*. The former marks a point just reached in a supposed progress, while the latter represents the limit as fixed or final: Ich hatte erst wenige Seiten gelesen als er zurückkam. Ich bin erst an der dritten Seite I am only at the third page. Warte nur bis Morgen. Es kostet nur einen Taler. Thus *erst* often implies that there is more to follow, while *nur* suggests that the progress is a limited one: Er ist erst (*only as yet*) Hauptmann, but Er ist nur (*only, which is not much*) Hauptmann. Ich habe erst (*more to follow*) drei Briefe gelesen, but Ich habe nur (*not many*) drei Briefe erhalten. *Nur* and *erst* may be combined: Wie klein, wie armelig ist diese große Welt! Sie kennen sie nur erst (*as yet*) von ihrer Glitterseite (Lessing's *Minna*, 5, 9).

Note. *Nur* is a contraction of O.H.G. *ni* (= nicht) *wäri* (= N.H.G. *wäre*, past subj.) and thus means *unless it were*. Its original use can still be found: Er sieht nich', er hört nich'. *Nur* diese Person (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, 4) He sees nothing, he hears nothing unless it be this person. From this original use has sprung up the general idea of limitation, as described above, and also the common use of limiting a preceding proposition: Er mag zuhören, nur soll er schweigen He may listen if he desires, but he must keep still. The adverb *bloß* is also used with the force of *nur* and sometimes both are combined: Kennst du mehr, als nur den Namen *bloß* von meinem Hause? (Schiller). In N.G. dialect and colloquial language *man* *bloß* are often

combined: Es is ja man bloß von Frize Bellow wegen, daß ich gefragt gehabt habe (Wildenbruch's *Die Quitzows*, I, 2).

c. *Überhaupt* expresses, as its parts signify (*passing over without counting the heads*, used in buying cattle by the lot without counting the heads), a statement in general without taking into consideration the limitations and conditions of a particular case. It may in part be translated by *in general, generally, as a rule, anyhow, really, after all, in any event, altogether, absolutely*, with negatives, and after when translated by *at all* and often difficult to render into English: Gutes Wetter wäre nicht nur unserer Reise halber, sondern überhaupt (in general) zu wünschen. Wie kann man überhaupt (anyhow) umtobt von so wilden Kindern einen jungen Hund erziehen? (Loth) Es sind die Ersten Ausern, die ich esse — (Frau Kruse) In der (der) Saison (Saison) mein'n (meinen) Se (Sie) woll (wohl)? — (Loth) Ich meine überhaupt (absolutely) — Hauptmann's *Vor Sonnenaufgang*, I. Ich habe überhaupt (at all) kein Vergnügen an der Musik. Du hast längst aufgehört mich zu lieben, wenn ich deine Liebe überhaupt (at all) je besessen habe.

It is often used after mentioning one or more special points to sum up the whole matter in one general comprehensive statement: Jeder Bursche, ward gemahnt, sollte die Vorlesungen pünktlich hören und überhaupt sich durch Fleiß auszeichnen.

2. Instead of an adverb of degree, the acc. of a noun or pronoun, less commonly a gen., may be used to express:

A. Extent or degree: Das Dorf liegt eine Stunde (an hour's walk or ride, according to the connection) von der Stadt. Gehen wir einen Schritt weiter Let us go one step farther. Der See ist einen Kilometer lang und einen halben breit. Er stand nur einen Fuß von mir entfernt. So geht das vier enggeschriebene Seiten fort (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 138) And so it (i. e. the letter) goes on for four closely written pages. Das kümmert mich kein Haar That doesn't worry me in the least. Du glaubst nicht, was (to what extent) dies Tier mein Freund geworden ist (Mörke). Das Thermometer ist einen Grad gefallen.

a. The simple acc. or the acc. after the prep. *um* may stand after a comparative to express the measure of difference: Friedrich ist einen halben Kopf or um einen halben Kopf größer als Wilhelm.

In early N.H.G. the gen. was here quite common: Da er unter das Volk trat | war er eins heut's lenger denn alles Volk (1 Sam., x. 23). It is still occasionally used: Damit ist gesagt, daß er eines Hauptes länger als alle vorigen Hebräer ist (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, III, 10).

b. The gen. is used to denote that something takes place at fixed intervals of space: Und namentlich in Zeitungen ist aller paar Zeilen Ähnliches zu finden (Theodor Matthias's *Sprachleben und Sprachschäden*, p. 334, 1st ed.). The acc. is also used here.

c. The gen. of extent or degree is found in a number of idiomatic expressions: *dermaßen* (maßen, an old wk. gen. sing. of Maße) *to such an extent*, also *in such a manner*, *dermaßen* *to such an extent*, sometimes *in this manner*, *einigermäßen* *to some extent*, *solchermaßen* *to such an extent*, sometimes *in such a manner*; *derart*, *dergestalt*, *solchergestalt* = *dermaßen*, *solchermaßen*. The gen. is used here under the influence of the gen. of manner which is employed with these words when they denote the manner of the activity. In most of these words the idea of *manner* is not now so common as formerly and in some cases, perhaps, not found any more at all, having been displaced by that of *degree*. Earlier in the period a prepositional construction was also in use: ein Vorwurf, der in gewisser Maßen (in 2nd edition of 1801 with simple gen.: gewissermaßen) allen andern Sekten gilt (Wieland's *Horaz*, I, 37).

B. Duration or measure of time answering the questions *how long, how often*, &c.: Er liest den lieben langen Tag He reads the whole livelong day. Er ist zwanzig Jahre alt. Ziehen Sie auf uns 2 Monate dato (from date) für die Hälfte

des Betrags. Alle Tage every day, alle zwei Tage every other day, alle acht Tage every week, alle zwei Stunden, einmal, zweimal, &c.

a. We not infrequently find also the gen. in sentences answering the question *how often*? See II. 4, above.

b. In a number of expressions containing numerals the gen. is only seemingly a gen. of measure, while in fact it is a partitive gen. dependent upon the numeral: zwei ganzer Stunden lang (Schiller) or now more commonly with the numeral after ganz, as in wie er denn noch ganzer drei Monate da gewesen ist (Lessing). The words zwei and drei are here in reality in the acc. of the measurement of time, but are now felt as attributive adjectives modifying the genitives Stunden and Monate. Also in such expressions the acc. of the noun is now more common: ganze vier Jahre lang.

c. The gen. is also used in a few set expressions denoting duration, as in den Tag über or Tage über all day long: Hunderte hatten Tags über den Platz umlagert (H. Böhlau's *Adam und Eva*, chap. i). Wer das mal gesehen hat vergißt's seiner [or perhaps more commonly seine] Lebtag' nicht (Halbe's *Der Strom*, p. 14), also seine(r) Lebtag or sein Lebtag (a mutilated or contracted acc. sing. or pl.).

d. In answer to the question *how often*, or *how much within a given time*, the gen., or perhaps more commonly acc., of the noun expressing the given time within may be used in case of masculines and neuters, with feminines, however, only the acc., or both constructions may with all genders be replaced by a prep. phrase: Das Schiff fährt zweimal des Tags, or zweimal den Tag, or jeden Tag zweimal, or an jedem Tage zweimal. Dr. Wie von Hülleröd sprach dreimal des Tages vor (Fontane's *Unwiederbringlich*, chap. xxiv). Einigemal des Jahres zog die ganze Familie nach Livoli (R. Voss's *Psyche*, chap. xviii). Dreißig Reichstaler des Jahres ließen sie ihm (Raabe's *Odsfeld*, chap. ii). Not zweimal der Woche, but jede Woche zweimal, or zweimal die Woche, or zweimal in der Woche. Der Kutscher muß wenigstens 160 m. (Meter) in der Minute zurücklegen.

C. Weight, amount, price: Es ist einen Zentner schwer. Die Rechnung beträgt einen Taler The bill amounts to one taler. Es kostet mir or mich viel Geld. Wie viel gilt es? Es gilt meinen Kopf How much is at stake? My head. Ich bin ihm 10 Taler schuldig I owe him 10 talers. Mir diesen Kirschen habe ich drei Mark den Korb verdient. Diese Kirschen kosten drei Mark den Korb. Hast Du mir nicht immer den lateinischen Aufsatz gemacht, einen Silbergrößen das Stück? (J. Rodenberg's *Klostermanns Grundstück*, p. 54). Notice that in the last two examples we have the accusative of price and also that of amount in the same sentence. Instead of the acc. of amount we often find the nom. when the noun denoting the material in question is in the nom.: Diese Kirschen kosten drei Mark der Korb. The two nominatives are in apposition with each other, the nom. replacing the older partitive gen. The construction becomes clear by changing the word-order: der Korb Kirschen kostet drei Mark.

Instead of an accusative of a noun we often find the acc. of a pronoun: Er lief, was er laufen konnte. Sie (i. e. zwei reitende Batterien) rufen zu mir her, was das Riemzeug hält (Liliencron's *Kriegsnovellen*). Aber was kann das helfen! (R. Huch's *Aus der Triumphgasse*, 1).

a. Instead of the acc. the gen. is still used in a few expressions denoting a part of a whole: teils in part, größtenteils in most part. Geh ihm gefällig halben Wegs entgegen (Goethe). Halbwegs entschließen half-way determined.

Earlier in the period we find the gen. of the amount or price also elsewhere: Da gilt's Schweigens (Luther). Wie es so unsäglich Mühsal gekostet (Scheffel's *Ekkehard* [1855] 84). With gelten also a prepositional construction was used: und sollt's dem Teufel um ein Ohr gelten (Schiller's *Räuber*, 2, 3).

3. Degree can also be expressed by a prepositional phrase: teils or zum Teil in part. Das Schiff wäre auf ein Haar gesentert The ship came within a hair's breadth of upsetting.

V. ADVERBS OF CAUSE OR REASON, usually expressed by an adverb or a prep. phrase: *Man kann davon krank werden* One can get sick from that. *Er ist zornig darüber* He is mad about it. *Das Kind zittert vor Frost.*

The following five classes may also be considered as subclasses under the general class of *cause*.

a. A gen. of cause was once common in the language, and still survives in a number of expressions. For full treatment see 260 (and 2.A. *b* and 3 thereunder) and 262. II.

VI. ADVERBS OF CONDITION, usually introduced by a gen. or a prep. phrase: *notigen Falls* if it is necessary, *günstigen Falls* if a favorable opportunity offers itself, *schlimmsten Falls* if worst comes to worst. *Nur bei großem Fleiße kannst du Fortschritte machen* You can make progress only on condition that you are very diligent.

VII. ADVERBS OF CONCESSION, expressed rarely by a gen., usually by a prep. phrase: *jedenfalls* in any event, in any case whatever, *auf alle Fälle* at all events, by all means. *Trotz mancher Widerwärtigkeiten ist das Leben doch reich an Freuden.*

VIII. ADVERBS OF PURPOSE OR END, usually expressed by an adv. or prep. phrase: *Dazu* (for that purpose) *kam ich nicht her.* *Man bestimmte ihn schon in der Jugend dafür (für den Soldatenstand).* *Er strebt nach Ehre.*

IX. ADVERBS OF MEANS, usually expressed by an adverb or a prep. phrase: *Man sprengt damit (mit Pulver) die stärksten Felsen.* *Durch falsches Zeugnis glaubt er sich zu retten.*

X. ADVERBS OF MATERIAL, usually expressed by an adverb or prep. phrase: *Schönes Tuch, wir wollen einen Rock davon machen lassen.*

XI. MODAL ADVERBS, which denote in what manner a thought is conceived by the speaker. They are thus adverbs of manner, and, like them, are sometimes expressed by the gen. of a noun instead of a simple adverb, but they differ from them and all other adverbs in that they modify the thought in the sentence as a whole rather than any one word in it: *feineswegs* by no means, *meinetheils* as regards me, as for me, *meines Wissens* as far as I know, *meines Erachtens* in my judgment, *unseres Bedünkens* as we look at it, in our opinion. Of these adverbs only those most idiomatic and difficult of comprehension are treated below, which should be carefully studied, as each gives a distinct complexion to the sentence in which it stands:

A. Expressing an affirmation:

a. *Ja* indeed, truly, why, don't you see, you know: *Das ist ja nun alles vorbei* But that is now, you know, all past. *Was ist vorgefallen?* *Sie sehen ja ganz bleich aus* What has happened? You look very pale indeed. See also *g.*

b. *Einmal'* or colloquially *mal* used to give emphasis to a statement: *Das ist einmal ein Bild!* That is a picture *for* you! or, I tell you that's a fine

picture! Tyrannisiren lasse ich mich einmal nicht I want you to know that I cannot be tyrannized over. Nun einmal *cannot be helped*: Das ist nun einmal hin That is lost and can't now be helped. Nicht einmal often occurs in the meaning *not even*, making some particular word in the sentence emphatic: Er regierte selber und nicht einmal sein Kammerdiener konnte sich persönlicher Einflüsse rühmen.

c. Doch has a different force according to the word-order used: (1) In normal or inverted order it has the meaning of *after all, though, just, truly, surely, in any event, any way*. It is used to strengthen a statement, but is employed adversatively to state something in contrast or opposition to what precedes, or it may be used in elliptical sentences, the *doch* expressing a contrast to something implied or understood: Sie ist nicht wie die andern Mädchen, aber sie ist doch nur ein Mädchen She is not like the other girls (afraid), but she is after all only a girl. Setz' dich, Robert; ich muß dir doch etwas erzählen Be seated, Robert; I have something which I just must tell you (although you may not want to hear it). Ich will doch sehen, ob man auch mich hinauswirft (The last man I sent, they put out of the house) I want to see though if they will go so far as to put me out too. Wo die (Büchse) herumstehen muß? Die hat doch der Andre mit I wonder where that gun can be! Andrew has it with him (didn't you know that?). More about this use in *g* below. (2) It is also used in sentences with question order to make in form of an exclamation some statement more impressive: Habe ich doch erst schon Undank erfahren! I have indeed and in truth met with unthankfulness often enough already. Habe ich den Markt und die Straßen doch nie so einsam gesehen! I declare I never before saw the public square and the streets so deserted!

d. Denn *evidently, as is well known, as the facts indicate, as it is evident from the preceding, as I learn, perceive*, and with various other translations of similar meaning: Es war des Grafen Laaffe Wille, das Deutschtum in Österreich nieder zu halten, und das hat er denn (as is well known) auch, soweit es in seiner Macht lag, gründlich besorgt. Er ist denn (as I now perceive) doch (after all) ein Narr! Er sagt es und so muß ich es denn (seeing that he says it) wohl glauben. Das ist denn (as is very evident) doch (and it is contrary to my expectation) ja arg (bad).

e. Schon *never fear, no doubt, surely, as a matter of course*, used to express great assurance or emphasis: Es wird ihm schon gelingen. Sie werden sich schon dort treffen They will no doubt meet there. Er wird schon kommen He will doubtless come. Ihr Herrn vom Handwerk kommt in allen Ländern herum und kennt schon (as a matter of course) erzählen. Here we have the original idea of *schon*, only somewhat faded. See II. 3. a, above. Compare *j*.

f. Ja wohl a stronger affirmative than ja, but often used without any difference of meaning from it, merely to avoid the too laconic ja. Sometimes used after a question expressing doubt as to a matter or expecting a negative answer, when it answers strongly in the affirmative with adversative force as *doch*: Du kommst wohl nicht? Ja wohl. You are not coming, are you? Yes, indeed I am.

g. As *doch* is nearly synonymous with *wohl* (see *h* and D. *h*), so it often has the same general force as ja in *a*, but *doch* here, as elsewhere, asserts its adversative nature, and thus distinguishes itself from ja: Mir Rat dürfen Sie mich doch unterstützen You might certainly (even if your power be so limited as not to help me more directly) support me with advice. The substitution of ja for *doch* here would not in English change the translation, but in the German implies that nothing stands in the way.

h. Wohl strengthens a statement much as *doch*, but lacks its adversative force, *indeed, certainly*: Wohl war es eine lange, kalte Nacht (Uhland's *Ernst*, I, 1). In popular ballads this *wohl* loses much of its force, so that its meaning becomes so faint that it can scarcely be rendered: Es zogen drei Burtsche wohl über den Rhein (Uhland's *Der Wirtin Töchterlein*). Nur strengthens a state-

ment in that it emphasizes the idea of urgency: Ich muß nur bald meinen armen Herrn aufsuchen (Lessing's *Minna*, I. 1).

i. An uncertain affirmation may be expressed by an adverb or a noun in the gen. such as wahrscheinlich probably, vielleicht perhaps, etwa possibly, perhaps, perchance, wohl used to modify the direct categorical tone of a statement, *likely, probably, I think*, möglicherweise (gen.) possibly. Er kommt wohl (I think) noch heute. Er war es wohl nicht It is not likely that it was he. Compare the use of wohl in h.

Note. Wohl is much used in the narration of something that probably was accustomed to take place under certain circumstances without positively saying that this was the case in actual fact on any given occasion, *would or used to*: Wenn er nun dort in wieder gesichertem Behagen bei seiner Hausfrau saß, den treuen bereits ergrauernden Thasso zu Füßen, dann sprach er wohl manchmal ufm.

j. The following adverbs are often used with concessive force: schon I admit, wohl may be, freilich or zwar to be sure, allerdings it must be admitted. Exs.: Das ist schon richtig, aber . . . That is correct, I admit, but . . . Here we have the original idea of schon, only somewhat faded; see II. 3. a. Er ist wohl ein geschickter Mann, doch traue ich ihm nicht He may be a very clever man, but I don't trust him. Er ist allerdings reich, allein er ist nicht glücklich.

B. Negation is expressed by an adverb, a noun in the gen., or a prep. phrase: nein no, nicht (in careless colloquial language often nit in S.G. and nich in N.G.) not, keineswegs by no means, auf keinen Fall in no event, nicht etwa not as you might be inclined to think, by no manner of means; the adversatives doch and ja doch (after a preceding negative proposition or a question implying a negative answer to affirm the contrary); doch nicht (affirming the contrary of that which is expected and already expressed or inferred by the preceding speaker or questioner); nicht doch (after a preceding affirmative sentence or a question expecting an affirmative answer, for the purpose of correcting, denying, disavowing its contents, or disapproving of the thought therein advanced); Gott bewahre! behüte Gott! or simply bewahre! or behüte! and colloquially i wo! (all strong negatives); ich dachte gar! (ei or ach) warum nicht gar! lieber gar! *nonsense! what an idea!* ironically, in fact branding some statement as false: Glauben Sie nicht etwa, daß ich morgen wieder komme Don't think (as you might be inclined to do) that I shall come again tomorrow. O bitte, es eilt nicht! Doch; es eilt Oh please don't hurry off, there is no need for it. *But* there is need of haste. Du gehst nicht ohne mich, Vater, du kannst nicht ohne mich leben; Vater, das fühl' ich jetzt an mir. (Der Vater, abwehrend) Ja doch But I can though. Sie haben wohl keine Eile? Doch You are not in a hurry, are you? Yes, I am though. „Ja, Sie denken auf Herrn Madegast!“ „Doch nicht, Herr Ribezahl!“ „Doch nicht?“ Warum doch nicht? Ist an dem Mann was anzusetzen? — „Es wird wohl regnen.“ „Nicht doch, das Barometer ist sehr gestiegen.“ Soll ich eine Nuß aufbeißen? Nicht doch, du könntest dir einen deiner schönen, weißen Zähne abbrechen. — Meinst du, solchen Burschen sei es daran gelegen? Bewahre! Die wollen nur Zeit gewinnen. — Aber hier handelt es sich um eine freche Beschimpfung meiner Ehre. Ach, warum nicht gar! (Otto Ernst's *Die Gerechtigkeit*, I, Verwandlung, 3).

a. The Latin rule that two negatives make an affirmative has gained the ascendancy in the literary language, but in the language of the common people two negatives make still, as formerly, a strong negative: Er war nirgend's nicht zu finden He was nowhere to be found.

Also in the literary language of the classical period a pleonastic negative is often to be found, especially in those cases where the clause or infin. phrase is logically negative, but there is no formal sign of negation: Wir mußten ihn mit Gewalt hindern, daß er sich nicht ein Leids zufügte We had to keep him by force from laying hand on himself. Here the verb hindern has negative force, but the speaker is conscious of the strong desire, which he had, that

his friend might *not* lay hand upon himself, and hence uses *nicht* to bring out this idea, though it is not required on strictly logical grounds. Thus also in infin. phrases: *Sorgfältig hüteten wir uns, nicht . . . uns umzuweisen* (Goethe). This pleonastic negative was formerly common, and colloquially is still sometimes found: (1) After verbs containing a negative idea, such as *abrat*en, *sich in acht nehmen*, *sich besorgen*, *sich enthalten*, *sich erwehren*, *fürchten*, *hüten*, *verbieten*, *verhindern*, *verhüten*; after *es fehlt wenig* (or *nicht viel*, &c.), *es kann nicht viel fehlen*; for like reason after the prep. *ohne* and also the conjunction *ohne daß*, provided it follow a negative or a question. Exs.: *Verhüt' es Gott, daß ich nicht Hülfe brauche* (Schiller). *Da ich hier ganz allein ohne Sekretär und ohne nichts auf Urlaub bin* (Goethe). *Der gemeine Soldat kann nicht verurteilt werden, ohne daß nicht zwei seiner Kameraden zu Gerichte kommen* (Möser). Examples also in 168. II. D and 169.

2. D. It is worthy of note that after *hüten* and words of similar meaning the negative is still quite common in *daß* clauses, while it is dropped in the contracted infinitive clause: *Hüte dich, daß du nicht fällst*, but *Hüte dich, zu fallen*. (2) In clauses of manner after a comparative: *Es ging besser, als wir nicht dachten* (Goethe). Under French influence this construction flourished earlier in the period, and is not infrequently found even in the works of the classical authors. It has now almost or quite disappeared. (3) In clauses introduced by *bis* or *ehe*, *bevor*, when they depend upon a negative clause: *Ich werde keine andere Arbeit beginnen, bis ich nicht diese beendet habe*. *Du kennst sie ja! Einfach nicht wegzufriegen aus der Küche und den Stuben, bis nicht alles so festlich als möglich glänzt und einladet und gemüthlich ist* (delle Grazie's *Sphinx*). *Die nicht seine Verhältnisse geordnet sind, kommt er nicht zur Ruhe* (Fontane's *Poggenpuhls*, chap. xii). (4) After *es ist lange her*: *Es ist lange her, daß wir nicht Regen gehabt haben*.

b. The negative *nicht* is often used in exclamations with the force of a strong affirmative: *Was du nicht alles weißt!* I declare if you don't know everything! = You surely know everything. The negative in such exclamations has arisen from a mingling of two constructions. From *Wie viel tut die Einbildung?* and *Tut die Einbildung nicht viel?* (see D, b, below) has come *Wie viel die Einbildung nicht tut!*

c. For the force of *nicht* in questions, see D, b, below.

d. The acc. of certain words, such as *Henker*, *Teufel*, is often in rather coarse language used as a strong negative: *Er weiß den Henker davon*. *Da schert man sich den Teufel um die Ideen der Zeit* (Sudermann's *Die Heimat*, 1, 5).

C. An imperative may be strengthened by the adverbs *einmal* (often contracted to *mal*), *nur* (colloquially in N.G. man), and *doch*. *Einmal* emphasizes a request or command, but often has a force so slight that it cannot be translated. It can sometimes be rendered by *just*, sometimes it merely serves to give to the style a more lively conversational tone: *Denke dir einmal!* Just think! *Komm einmal her!* Come here a minute! *Hör' mal!* Die Nachtigall singt. *Nur* and *doch* are used to urge an action or course of action, the former rather persuasively, and the latter rather more firmly, or beseechingly even, in spite of evident opposition or reluctance, as there is always here, as elsewhere, adversative force in *doch*: *Fange nur an; es ist ja nicht schwer* Do make a beginning; it is indeed not difficult. *Schonen Sie nur den Vater!* Seien Sie recht aufmerksam auf seine kleinen Liebhabereien. *Gut! Nur zu Good!* Keep right on! *Nur nicht hzig, mein Herr!* I hope you will not lose your temper. *Treten Sie man* (instead of *nur*) *ein*. *Gi!* laß ihn doch Let him alone, I say. *Starren Sie mir doch nicht so polizeilich ins Gesicht, wie wenn ich gestohlen hätte*. *Setz dich doch!* O do be seated!

Though *doch* and *nur* are both used in commands and entreaties there is a marked difference in their several meanings. *Do* implies reluctance on the part of the person addressed, while *nur* implies that the speaker *desires* this course and urges the other to adopt it. Thus as this desire (*nur*) on the part of the speaker and the reluctance (*doch*) on the part of the person addressed may both enter as factors into the case, both words may appear in

the same sentence: *Nach, so kommt doch nur, behte es noch einmal von Käthes Lippen.* Sometimes *doch* and *einmal* are combined in one sentence: *Erklären Sie doch einmal!* Come, do explain! Sometimes in lively conversational tone all three adverbs may be combined in one sentence: *Hören Sie doch nur einmal!* I beg of you, do listen a moment!

a. Admonitions or commands are also often strengthened by *wohl*, especially such as have the form of a question, the speaker in all cases assuming compliance upon the part of the person addressed: *Überlege wohl, was du sagst. Willst du wohl machen, daß du fortkommst?*

b. In mild commands, direct and indirect, also in granting permission, *immer* is used to indicate that the speaker has no objection to the matter in question and sometimes to give encouragement: *Die Leute mögen es immer wissen, daß ich nichts mehr habe* (Lessing's *Minna*, 3, 7) Let the people know for all I care that, &c. *Laß sie nur immer toben!* Sate es ihm immer! Certainly, just tell it to him! *Du darfst den Apfel immer nehmen.* Sage ihm, er möge immer reisen Tell him he should go by all means.

D. A question.

a. *Denn* used to put a question in an interested, eager manner, inquiring after the cause or reason of some fact that is already known, or often only to ask a question in a tone of lively interest or of impatience: *Warum hast du's denn verkauft? Was ist denn passiert? Wie heißt sie denn? Siehst du es denn nicht? Why, don't you see it?*

b. *Nicht* expecting an affirmative answer: *Kommt er nicht?* He is coming, is he not?

c. *Etwa* *nicht* suggests a doubt in the mind of the questioner as to something which he once had thought settled in the affirmative and concerning which he now asks definite information, and in inverted order, *nicht etwa*, is often used politely to hint that the person addressed is in the wrong: *Kommt er etwa nicht?* Is there doubt about his coming? *Haben Sie mir etwa diese Blumen nicht geschickt?* (Sudermann's *Heimat*, 1, 2) Can it be that you have not sent me these flowers? *Irren Sie sich nicht etwa?* Don't you think you are mistaken?

d. *Etwa* or *vielleicht* in questions direct or indirect marking the matter in question as one of possible occurrence: *Gibt's etwa heute Regen?* Can it be that it will rain to-day? *Komme ich etwa ungelegen?* Can it be that I come at an inopportune time? *Zweifelt etwa (or vielleicht) jemand daran?* Can it be that any one doubts it? *Haben Sie etwa Geld bei sich?* Do you happen to have any money with you? *Ist Ihnen etwa um 5 Uhr gefällig?* Shall we say five o'clock?

e. *Wohl* is used in questions in the following constructions: (1) In rhetorical questions (i.e. in such questions as need no express response, as the answer is self-evident) to which the speaker would give a negative answer, it is used in order to indicate that the speaker confidently expects a confirmation from the hearer of his own negative position: *Ist wohl der ein würdiger Mann, der im Glück und Unglück sich nur allein bedenkt?* Is he indeed a worthy man who in fortune and misfortune only thinks of himself? *Nun glaubt Ihr wohl, Gott werde es zugeben, daß ein einziger Mann in seiner Welt wie ein Büttich hause und das Oberste zu unterst fehre?* (Schiller). This use is similar to *h*, described below. (2) It is also very frequently used to ask after the opinion of the person addressed as to some doubtful point, and also often without reference to any person addressed, giving to the question the character of a mere enquiring conjecture: *Wer ist wohl der schlanke Burische?* Who do you think that slender fellow is? *Kommt er wohl heute noch?* Do you think he will come yet to-day? *Wohin führt wohl jene Thür?* I wonder where that door leads to. Very frequent in indirect questions: *Ob wohl die Vergoldungen echt sind?* I wonder if the gildings are genuine.

f. *Nur* in questions or exclamations with the force of questions, *I should*

like to know, much used in questions, prompted by the desire to know and understand, and very often mingled with surprise: Was ich nur anfangen? I should like to know what I ought to do in this case. Aber was haben Sie nur vor? What in the world are you planning to do? Was suchst du nur? What are you looking for? Wer es nur gesagt hat? I wonder who told it!

g. Doch with its usual adversative force expressing something to the surprise of or contrary to the wishes, expectation, &c. of the speaker: Wo hab' ich's doch? Where is it, any way? (I can't find it, but it *must* be on my person). Sah euch doch niemand? Kein Mensch But did not somebody see you? Not a soul. It is often used in questions put to one's self for the purpose of trying to recall something forgotten: Was wollte ich doch eigentlich? What was I just about to do, any way?

h. In questions having the form of declarative sentences doch and wohl are used to state the opinion or idea of the speaker, and ask for a confirmation of it; nicht wahr and in the South gelt expect an affirmative reply to a simple question: Du hast's ihm doch gesagt? I suppose you told him? Sie haben doch Bekannte hier? I suppose you have acquaintances here? Sie haben jetzt wohl viel zu tun? You have now, I suppose, much to do? Sie werden mitkommen, nicht wahr? You will come along, won't you? Aber gelt, er steckte dir gewiß Geld in deinen Beutel? He surely put money into your pocket, did he not?

In the above sentences doch and wohl have the same general meaning, but doch with its usual adversative force implies (often politely) that something to the contrary may possibly be urged against it, while wohl assumes that this will probably not be the case. Both particles can be combined with the combined force of them both: Sie müssen doch wohl antworten? You will probably have to answer, will you not?

Nicht added to doch or wohl in such sentences expects confidently a negative answer: Du wirst doch nicht Fräulein Helene mit ihrer Schwester vergleichen wollen? You certainly will not desire to compare Miss Helene with her sister?

Nicht etwa added to doch in such sentences express the hope that a fear or suspicion may not be realized, or may be without foundation: Aber (er sieht sich um, leiser) sie wird's doch nicht etwa hören? But (he looks around him, and speaks more softly) I hope she will not hear it; you certainly don't think she will? Ihr verhaßt den Hund doch nicht etwa? Nein, er haßt uns.

E. An exclamation may express different shades according to the adverb used. Here doch expresses a surprise on the part of the speaker; nur (colloquially in N.G. man) an urgent wish that the person addressed may comply with some desire of the speaker, or look at something from his standpoint; denn impatience; nicht (as in D, b, and B, b) expressing that the person addressed will agree to the sentiment uttered: Das nenne ich doch noch Humor! Well, I will declare if that isn't even humorous! Sie sollten ihn nur hören und sehen! You ought (I do hope you will) to hear him and see him. Setz denn still! Sit still then! Wie glücklich waren wir nicht! How happy we were! Was ist er nicht für ein frecher Bursche! What a bold fellow he is!

F. A wish may express different shades by using different adverbs, such as doch or nur (colloquially man) only, wenn doch or wenn nur if only; much less frequently erst *only*, alone or with nur; man nur used very often colloquially in N.G. for nur. Doch is adversative, and shows that the wishes of the speaker do not harmonize with the facts, and cannot probably be made to do so. Nur, as in the preceding articles, expresses a wish that can be or could have been realized, but it often implies the fear that it may possibly not find realization. Wenn er doch käme! If he only would come (I fear he will not)! Wenn ich nur nicht zu spät komme! Oh that I may not arrive too late! Wenn es nur so gewesen wäre! Wäre ich erst ein alter Mann! Wenn ich nur erst hundert Jahre hätte! Here, as often elsewhere, erst calls attention to what would follow (223. IV. 1. b. (2)).

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

224. Few genuine adverbs, from their very meaning, admit of comparison, but the many adverbs made from adjectives, like the latter, can be compared. The comparison of such adverbs does not differ at all in the positive and comparative from adjectives except that the adverbial forms are not inflected, and hence their comparison along with that of genuine adverbs is treated under adjectives; see 114-118. In N.H.G. the adverb has developed new forms in the superlative which are given in 114.

PREPOSITIONS.

NATURE.

225. Very closely allied in nature to adverbs are prepositions, which, like adverbs, limit the force of the verb as to some circumstance of place, time, manner, cause or reason, purpose or end, means, material, modal expression—in short the same circumstances as are expressed by the adverb *minus* degree; hence the preposition, unlike the adverb, cannot admit of comparison. Thus a preposition in connection with its dependent substantive is exactly equal in force to an adverb, but a preposition and an adverb differ in this that the latter limits the force of the verb in and of itself, while the former requires the assistance of a dependent noun or some other word. A preposition does not only serve to link thus its object to a verb, but also to an adjective, a noun, or a sentence. As this connective particle usually stands *before* the dependent word, it is called a preposition (Latin *prae* *before* and *positio* *position*).

1. a. Sometimes a few prepositions and adverbs touch each other so closely that the prep. can only be distinguished by its dependent substantive, and if that be dropped the same word, which was only a moment before a prep., becomes an adverb: Das Haus liegt abwärts (prep.) des Flusses The house lies back from the river. Das Haus liegt abwärts The house lies to one side.

b. As the distinguishing mark of the prep. is its dependent word, it entirely loses its identity when it enters into composition with verbs, and must be considered as an adverb. It sometimes changes slightly its meaning when it becomes an adverbial prefix; see 229. 2 under the prep. nach, *f*, also under entgegen. The object of verbs compounded with prepositions is sometimes governed in case by the preposition contained in the verb, especially where the local idea is prominent; often, however, its case is controlled by the verb itself where the verbal idea is conspicuous: Sie liefen dem Diebe nach They ran after the thief, but Ich will dir das Geheimnis mittheilen, du darfst es (acc. of the direct object) aber nicht nachgehen I will tell you the secret, but you must not repeat it. See also 258. 1. B. *a* and 262. 1. *b*.

c. Sometimes when there is a dependent noun, there is actual fluctuation of conception, sometimes the particle being construed as an adverb, sometimes as a prep. This is true of an or gegen about, über more than, unter less than: Es ist an (adv.) or gegen (adv.) ein Thaler or an (prep.) or gegen (prep.) einen

Taler Verlust dabei There is a loss of about a thaler in the transaction. Es ist über (adv.) ein Taler or über (prep.) einen Taler Verlust dabei. Es ist unter (adv.) ein Taler or unter (prep.) einem Taler Verlust dabei. In this idiom, notice that the prep. über according to its idea of *going beyond* and an from the idea of *approaching* take the acc., but the prep. unter the dat., while all three used as adverbs remain without influence over the case.

2. Prepositions approach in some cases the nature of conjunctions, and lose their influence over the case of the following word. This is true of anstatt or statt, außer, and earlier in the period, and even occasionally later, also ohne *except*, which is now replaced here by außer and ausgenommen: Er hat es mir anstatt meinem Bruder gegeben. Eine Maschine, die das Feuer treibt, anstatt der Fuhrmann (Rosegger). Ich will mit Stahl und Stein das Meißig zünden | und diesmal dir, statt Herr, ein Diener sein (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 3). Ja, niemand kann mir helfen — außer ich selbst (Fulda's *Die Sklavin*, 2, 8). Sie fanden alles außer den Dösch, or außer (prep.) dem Dösch. Sie war es längst nicht mehr gewöhnt, was sie dachte und fühlte, gegen irgend einen Menschen, außer gegen Justus, frei zu äußern (Spielhagen's *Sonntagskind*, I, 4). Daß ich nicht nachdenken kann ohne mit der Feder in der Hand (Lessing). Nimmer mehr von Alßheim zu kehren aus dem Streit, | ohne mit Alßjennen (Geibel's *Juniuslieder*, 339).

a. The preceding prepositions connect as conjunctions only words, but seit, bis, während also connect sentences, as may also others when followed by some other conjunction, as außer daß, außer wenn, anstatt daß, &c.: Persönliche Tapferkeit entscheidet weniger, seit sich die Heere der Schießgewehre bedienen. Wir gehen täglich, außer wenn es regnet. Instead of außer daß we also find the simple connective: Das hübsche Berghaus hat sicher ein Gastzimmer, und darin will ich mich — außer Sie jagen mich gewaltsam hinaus — volle drei Tage festsetzen (Suttner's *Im Berghause*, p. 26). Formerly ungeachtet daß was common, but the simple connective is now preferred. Instead of the connective seit the form seitdem is also used. The preps. anstatt, ohne, and um *in order* are very commonly found as conjunctions in connection with the infin. with zu in contracted clauses: Anstatt weg zu laufen, kam der Bär heran. Ohne sich umzusehen, lief der Dieb davon. Wir leben nicht um zu essen, sondern wir essen um zu leben.

b. In the case of anstatt, statt, and außer when they connect grammatical elements of like rank in the nom. or acc., the words can usually be used as preps. or conjunctions without difference of meaning: Der Bauer brachte das Kalb anstatt der Kuh, or statt die Kuh. Niemand kommt mir entgegen außer ein Unverschämter (Lessing's *Emilia*, 4, 3), or außer einem Unverschämten. But in case of statt, anstatt when there is only an indirect object after the verb, either in the simple dat. or a case after a prep., there is a sharp distinction between the prepositional and conjunctive construction. In the former construction, the noun following anstatt, statt is felt as the subject or author of an action, while a noun after these particles in the conjunctive construction is felt as the indirect object: Sie dankte mir anstatt deiner (instead of you doing so), but Sie dankte mir statt dir She thanked me instead of thanking you. Er hat statt deiner (instead of you doing it) an mich geschrieben, but Er hat an mich statt an dich geschrieben He wrote to me instead of writing to you.

3. A prep. often seems to show a relation of meaning between two nouns where in fact the relation is between a noun and a verb. Thus Geld zur Reise *money for the journey* is an elliptical expression = Das Geld, das zur Reise bestimmt ist. Thus also Herr über Tod und Leben = Der Herr, der über Tod und Leben gesetzt ist. In other cases the preposition may link together two nouns, the prep. phrase being a real adjunct to a noun representing an older simple case form: ein Mäntelchen von Scharlach = M.H.G. ein scharlachenes Mäntelchen.

4. Sometimes the same relations are expressed by a prep. and case as by a case alone, and sometimes by changing the prep. the idea may receive a new shade: Man freut sich einer Sache, or an einer Sache *One takes pleasure in a thing* (which one has), but Man freut sich auf eine Sache *One takes pleasure in*

something that one is expecting for the future. Perhaps the prepositional construction is never entirely equal to the case construction, as the prep. often brings out more prominently some circumstance as cause, reason, &c. : *Ich bin müde von (from, on account of) Arbeiten*, but *Ich bin des Arbeitens müde* I am tired of work, do not care to work longer.

5. Sometimes the prep. is followed by an adverb or a prep. phrase instead of a noun or pronoun: *von früh bis spät* from early till late; *von heute auf morgen verschieben* to put off from to-day till to-morrow. *Er dachte an zu Haus* (Ompfeda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XXV).

GOVERNMENT OF PREPOSITIONS.

226. Originally the nouns which followed prepositions were not governed at all by the latter, but received their case directly from their relations to the verb, the preposition likewise limiting the verb by adding some especial explanatory circumstance of place, time, &c. Thus in an earlier period most of the pure prepositions were in fact adverbs, and the same prep. could be followed by two or even three different cases according to the relation of the noun to the verb, and hence possessed no governing power over the noun. But in course of time a closer relation developed between the prep. and the noun, and the former gained governing power over the latter, certain prepositions habitually requiring certain cases after them. A group of prepositions, however, discussed below, still allow two different cases to stand after them according to the relation of the noun to the verb, which fact shows that the verb has not entirely lost its influence over nouns following prepositions.

The improper prepositions (see **245. V. 1. B**) still retain in good measure the power of governing the same case with which they were associated in their former capacity ere they became prepositions, but also from the crossing of different conceptions may take another case without any difference of meaning, as is discussed in detail below.

For the construction employed when several prepositions governing different cases stand before one noun, see **141. 5. B. b.**
Note.

PREPOSITIONS WITH THEIR DEPENDENT CASES.

227. The following lists contain almost all German prepositions, the few rarer ones or those needing especial treatment being mentioned in the following articles. Also a detailed treatment of each of the prepositions in these lists follows below. Those marked with a † usually govern some other case, but those with a * less commonly take another case. Those marked with ** govern different cases according as they precede or follow the dependent noun. Several of the prepositions have several forms, the more uncommon being inclosed in parentheses.

Prepositions with the Genitive.

abgerechnet	entlang †	inner(t) †	östlich	ungerechnet
abseits	(entlangst)	innerhalb *	östwärts	unterhalb *
(abseitsen)	exklusive*	inwärts	punkto	unterwärts
(abseitig)	gegenwärts	jenseits *	rechts	unweit *
abwärts	gelegentlich	kraft	rings	vermittels
abzüglich	gemäß †	längs †	rittlings	vermittelst
anbetriffs	halb	(längst)	rücksichtlich	vermöge
angesichts	halben	längsseit	rückwärts	von seiten
anlässlich	halber	laut	seitab	von wegen
anstatt	halbwegs	links	seitens	vorbehaltlich
antwerflich	herwärts	macht	seitlich	vornwärts
aufwärts	hinsichtlich	mangels	seitwärts	während *
ausschließlich	hinsichs	mittels	statt	wegen *
außerhalb *	hinterücks	mittelst	südlich	westlich
ausweislich	hinterwärts	namens	südwärts	westwärts
behuft	hinwärts	niedwärts	trog *	zeit
besage	hüben und drüben	nördlich	um — willen	zufolge **
betreffs	inselge	nordwärts	unangesehen	zugunsten **
bezüglich	inhaltlich	ob †	unbeschadet	zunächst †
binnen	inhalts	oberhalb	unerachtet	zu seiten
dank †	inklusive *	oberwärts	unfern *	zugänglich
diesseits *	inmitten	osten *	ungeachtet	zwecks
einschließlich				

With the Dative.

ab	entgegen	nach	seit	zufolge **
aus	gegenüber	nächst	tragt	zugunsten *
bei	gemäß *	nebst	von	zusamt
benebst	längs (längst)	nid	vorgängig	zusamt mit
binnen	mit	ob *	zu	zuwider
dank *	mitsamt	samt		

With the Acc.

bis	erklusivet	gen	lang (colloq.)	sonder
durch	für	hindurch	ohne	um
entlang	gegen	inklusive †	per, pro, via, à	wider

With Dat. and Acc.

an	hinter	mang (N.G.)	über	vor
auf	in	neben	unter	zwischen
außer	inner(t)	ober (S.G.)		

Note. For contractions of these prepositions with the article, see 57. B.

ORIGIN, MEANING, AND USE OF PREPOSITIONS WITH THE GENITIVE.

228. 1. The use of the genitive after prepositions is easily explained by the substantive nature of a large part of them, for when one noun depends upon another the dependent noun is in the gen. The prepositions governing the gen. are in fact:

a. Nouns in the adverbial gen., or expressions formed after the model of such, often presenting in this form an abbreviated construction for an adverbial phrase. Thus instead of *Von Berlin aus liegt Magdeburg auf jener Seite der Elbe* we say more briefly *jenseits der Elbe*. Thus also instead of *durch das Mittel des*

Steuerruders we can more briefly say mittels des *Steuerruders*. This adverbial gen. in such prepositions usually ends in *s*, also in fem. words after the analogy of masculines: *diesseits*, *seitens*, &c. Many such prepositional forms are still written with a capital, as the original relation to the parent substantive is still vividly felt: *Ausgangs* dieser oder *Anfangs* der nächsten Woche, *Eingangs* der südsüdlichen Schweiz. There is here, however, much caprice as to the use of capitals.

b. Nouns in an oblique case after a preposition expressed or understood: in *Kraft* allein des *Rings* (Lessing's *Nathan*, 3, 7), more commonly without the *in*, as in *Kraft* meines Amtes by virtue of my office; *statt* or *anstatt* meines Bruders for an meines Bruders *Statt*; um des Freundes willen (acc. after *um*) for the sake of my friend; von (now usually omitted) wegen (dat. pl.) des vergessenen Blutes; in *Betracht* seiner Jugend. *Anfang in the beginning of*, *Mitte in the middle of*, *Ende the last of*, *toward the close of*, *Ecke on the corner of*, are now frequently used as prepositions dropping the preceding preposition and article, or both preposition and article may be retained: Die *Trippelli*, *Anfang* (or *im Anfang*) der *Dreißig*, *stark*, *männlich* und von ausgesprochen humoristischem Typus, hatte den *Sofa*-*Ehrenplatz* innegehabt. Ich werde *Mitte* (or *in der Mitte*) nächster Woche verreisen. Er war ein athletisch gebauter Mann *Ende* (or *am Ende*) der *Zwanziger*. *Ecke* (or *an der Ecke*) der *Schadowstraße* (in Berlin) ist der *Eingang* zum *Aquarium*. These prepositions are in different stages of evolution, and hence do not all stand in the same relation to the nouns from which they come. Some have thrown off the preposition before them, some retain it occasionally, some always, some drop it, but can be replaced by nouns with both preposition and article. In general, however, these prepositions differ from pure nouns in dropping the article, and in the more or less set form and position they assume in the sentence, usually admitting of no adj. modifiers, and standing always before the dependent genitive, thus having no freedom of position.

c. Adverbs and participles, the former in some cases also, like the adverbial nouns in *a*, ending in *s*: *links* des Zuschauers to the left of the spectator; *nordwärts* to the north of, *einschließlich* inclusive of, &c.; *während* (pres. part.) during, *ungeachtet* (past part.) notwithstanding, *abgerechnet* aside from, not counting, *ungerechnet* not counting.

2. The double construction, gen. or dat., after some of these prepositions is explained by the crossing of two or more conceptions. On the one hand, when one noun depends upon the other, the dependent one must be in the gen. Thus, as can be seen from 1. *a* and *b*, above, a number of these prepositions, being in fact nouns, require the dependent noun to stand in the gen. On the other hand, the idea that is contained in some nouns suggests the use of the dative after the analogy of other similar constructions. Thus we say *Jenseits* des Flusses steht eine alte Kapelle, but we also find sometimes *jenseits* dem Flusse, as the idea of rest is so often associated with the dative. On the other hand, a few prepositions governing the dative are also found with a genitive, as their originally substantive nature is felt, or they are influenced by prepositions which were once substantives. Thus we say *trotz* den Befehlen des Königs in analogy with *man bietet* den Befehlen des Königs *Troß*, but we also, and now more commonly, say *trotz* der Befehle des Königs. The form *gemäß* is in fact an adjective governing the dat. and can still be inflected and compared, but it has become associated in meaning with the prepositional formations in *Gemäßheit* und *zufolge*, so that it likewise sometimes governs the gen.: *dem Befehl gemäß*, or *gemäß dem Befehl* or *des Befehls*.

a. We sometimes find non-inflection or the dat. after prepositions governing the gen. on purely formal grounds: (1) We not infrequently find an unmodified substantive uninflected after these prepositions: Gamketta folgte ihnen ebenfalls dorthin, indem er Paris **mittels Luftballon** (instead of the more correct gen.) verließ (*Deutsche Rundschau*). Thus also in a number of expressions, especially in popular language, such as *wegen Todesfall* on account

of death, wegen Abbruch on account of the tearing down of the building, &c., instead of the more correct, and in choice language more common, wegen Todesfalls, Abbruchs, &c. After diesseits, jenseits, oberhalb, unterhalb, außerhalb, unweit, unfern, nördlich, südlich, östlich, westlich we often find non-inflection before names of places, although these words elsewhere more commonly govern some case: oberhalb des Rheins, but oberhalb Berlins or Berlin.

Non-inflection in case of unmodified words is especially common in lists of words, where the repetition of & would be unpleasant: Es war eine schier vertierte Gemeinde, die vorwiegend wegen Betrug, Raub, Diebstahl, Einbruch hier gefangen faß (Marriot's *Seine Gottheit*, chap. ii). Others employ here the regular gen. ending: Dann ist noch einer wegen Bettelns, Landstreichens und Nüchterns im Freien vorbestraft (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan*?, II).

(2) The use of the dat. instead of the gen. is especially frequent where the latter is not clearly marked in form: während fünf Tagen (instead of Tage, which is not clearly marked as a gen.). The dat. is quite common in case of the masc. and neut. sing. of the relative and interrogative pronoun welcher, which has a gen. sing. exactly like the nom. and acc. neut.; see während under 4, below. The dat. is likewise common in case of other pronouns which cannot distinguish a gen. from the nom. and acc.: wegen manchem (R. Schweichel's *Verloren*). See also anstatt, während, wegen, below.

(3) The use of the dat. instead of the gen. is sometimes preferred when a dependent gen. stands between the prep. and its object: Unmut wegen Hegeis immer steigendem Ansehen. The dat. is sometimes similarly used when a dependent gen. follows the object of the prep.; see wegen under 4, below.

(4) Spielhagen in his *Herrin*, p. 29, uses the dat. to prevent a clash between different numbers of the same case: während der ganzen zwei und einem halben Jahre.

3. These prepositions are constantly increasing in number, much more so than all other classes. It can be seen from the above that it is impossible to include in the list all such prepositional particles which govern the gen., for many nouns, as in 1. *a* and *b*, above, and others are occasionally pressed into service as preps., though they still retain their initial capital. In most cases only such are given in the list as are usually written with a small letter and pass generally for prepositions.

4. The treatment of prepositions governing the genitive as to their meaning and use follows, the prepositions being arranged alphabetically. In some cases the mere definition will suffice, as these prepositions do not enter into so many idiomatic combinations as prepositions governing other cases.

abgerechnet aside from, not counting: abgerechnet einiger Städte (*Ausld.*, 38, 821 *a*). Überall senft, wo der Geist heute streng mächtig und ohne Falschmünzerei am Werke ist, entbehrt er jetzt überhaupt des Ideals — der populäre Ausdruck für diese Abstinenz ist „Atheismus“ —: abgerechnet seines Willens zur Wahrheit (Nietzsche's *Zur Genealogie der Moral*, p. 480). The absolute construction in connection with an absolute acc. is more common here: Marijka, ihren Stolz abgerechnet, war ein liebenswürdiges Wesen.

abseits, see seitens and abseits.

abseits, abwärts, and the now rarer forms **abseit, abseiten, abseitig** off to one side, aside from: Abseits des Weges liegt das Haus. Abwärts des Eingangs. Vergebens hatte der letzte gegen den jungen Senator hervorgehoben, daß „kraft seines tragenden Amtes, abseiten des Ansehens der Familie,“ die Augen der ganzen Stadt auf ihn gerichtet seien (Storm's *Söhne des Senators*, p. 301). They sometimes occur with the dat.: Unwas abseits dem Flecken und darüber erhöht lag ein einzelnes Schloßchen (Hans Hoffmann's *Die Totenhochzeit*). Abwärts is also used in the meaning of *below, downward, down stream from*, usually with the gen., but often with non-inflection before names of places: abwärts der Brust, abwärts Hamburg below Hamburg (on the Elbe).

abzüglich deducting: abzüglich der Transportkosten.

anbetreffs, betreffs, in Betreff, in Anbetreff concerning, as regards: Mein Plan *betreffs* einer Reise. These prepositions are very closely related in meaning to *hinsichtlich, hinsichts, bezüglich*: Seine Erzählung bedarf *in Betreff*, or *in Anbetreff*, or *betreffs*, or *hinsichts*, or *hinsichtlich*, or *bezüglich* mancher Punkte der Berichtigung.

angesichts, *angesichts* zu *angesichts* in the face of; *angesichts* der Feinde. *angesichts* zu *angesichts* ihres unbegreifbaren Übermuts saß der große Pessimist stumm, fast regungslos da.

anlässlich, auf or aus *Anlaß* spurred on, impelled by the occasion of, upon the occasion of: *anlässlich* des 90. Geburtstages des berühmten Gelehrten erschien eine Festschrift.

anstatt or **statt** instead of: *Anstatt* (or *statt*) des Vaters erschien die Mutter. Sometimes, especially in popular language, with the dat.: *Anstatt* dem Vater erschien die Mutter. Also sometimes in the literary form of speech: *statt* einem solchen Steine (Lessing's *ant. Br.*, 23). Tut's denn *statt* mir (Grillparzer's *Ein treuer Diener*, 2). *Statt* Fluchen, Gähnen und dem schlürfenden Schritte der Trägheit hörte man auf diesem Hofe wieder den raschen, freudigen Tritt des Fleißes (H. Seidel's *Der Schatz*, VI). Especially when the gen. form has not an ending which clearly marks it as a gen.: Daß *statt* Bösem (the gen. Bösen would not be a clear gen.) Gutes daraus gewonnen wird (Rudolf Hildebrand's *Vom deutschen Sprachunterricht*, p. 117). Doch wie staunten sie, | als sie *statt* jenem, den sie hier gesucht, | nun einen Ritter sahen im schlichten Kleide (M. Greif's *Heinrich der Löwe*, 2, 1).

For the conjunction *anstatt* or *statt*, see 225. 2 and *a* and *b* thereunder.

antwortlich, in Verantwortung, in Erwiderung in reply to: *Antwortlich* Ihres geehrten Legten (Briefes) teile ich Ihnen mit, &c.

aufwärts up, above (on a river, &c.), with gen., and often non-inflection in case of names of places: *aufwärts* des Stromes. *Aufwärts* Itzhang (place) findet man Stellen, wo das Hochwasser Häuser . . . hinweggeschwemmt hat (Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung, Oct. 2. 1902).

ausschließlich exclusive of, **einschließlich** inclusive of, always with the gen.; also instead of the former *exklusive*, and instead of the latter *inklusive*, both words governing either gen. or acc., more usually the latter when the noun has no article or other modifying noun, rarely with the dat.: So habe ich *inklusive* der Rente meines Kapitals ein jährliches Einkommen von ziemlich genau achttausend Mark. Die Preise sind *exklusive* Trinkgeld. *Inklusive* 9 oder 10 Passagieren betrug die sämtliche Schiffsgesellschaft 30 und einige Köpfe (*Ausld.*, 38, 821 *b*).

außerhalb outside, **innerhalb** inside, **oberhalb** above, **unterhalb** below, also sometimes with the dat. and sometimes with non-inflection in case of articleless names: *außerhalb* der Stadt, *unterhalb* des Dorfs, *innerhalb* eines Jahrtausends, *innerhalb* zehn Tagen, *innerhalb* einem Tage (Lessing; more commonly eines Tages), *außerhalb* Bayerns (*Hamburgischer Correspondent*, 27. Feb. 1903), *außerhalb* Berlin und Potsdam (Curtius). Instead of the preceding constructions we sometimes find the preposition followed by *von* w. dat., especially when there is no word which can clearly mark the case: *innerhalb* von vier Wänden (Raabe's *Pfitzers Mühle*, XIX). The prep. construction is the rule with pronouns: *Wär' der Durchbruch 'ne halbe Meile unterhalb* von uns passiert, dann könnten wir noch heut' auf unserm Hof sitzen (Halbe's *Der Strom*, p. 15).

ausweislich, nach *Ausweis*, besage (rare) as shown by the documentary evidence of: Dazu sind Sie *ausweislich* (or *besage*) des Vertrags verpflichtet.

(a) Synonymous with these words in so far as the reference is to documentary or written evidence are: *gemäß* in accordance with, *inhalts* or *inhaltlich* (in official style), *laut*, *zufolge* (with the dat. when it follows the noun), and the very frequent form *nach* (with the dat.) according to; see also each of these words.

behufs, zum Behuf, zwecks for the furtherance of, with a view to, for

the purpose of, much used instead of the more simple but not so explicit zu (w. dat.): behufs Wahrung des Prestiges der italienischen Flagge for the purpose of maintaining the prestige of the Italian flag. Am 2. ds. (dieses Monats) brach die Rollenfahne zum zweiten Male und das Schiff mußte infolgedessen behufs der Ausbesserung 41 Stunden still liegen. Er ist der Polizeibehörde zur, or behufs, or zwecks Einsperrung überwiesen worden. Die Schülerinnen sollen zwecks Schonung ihrer Augen acht Tage vom Unterricht dispensiert werden und dann zwecks erneuter Untersuchung sich wieder in der Schule einfinden.

besage, see *ausweislich*.

betreffs, see *anbetriffs*.

bezüglich or in Bezug auf (w. acc.) with reference to; see *anbetriffs*. Sometimes instead of the gen. after bezüglich we find the prep. auf (w. acc.): seine Bemerkungen bezüglich auf Farben organischer Körper (Goethe).

binnen *within, inside of*, of space and time, more commonly the latter, often with dat. like in and also often with the gen. like innerhalb: binnen Landes gemacht (Möser), binnen ihren notwendigen Grenzen (Immermann); binnen hier und einem Jahr (Lessing), binnen den nächsten drei Stunden (Raabe), binnen kurzem (Marriot) *within a short time*; binnen eines Monats (Schiller), binnen weniger Monate (Curtius), binnen weniger Wochen (Spielhagen), binnen weniger Wochen (Marriot), binnen weniger Jahre (Felicie Ewart), binnen weniger Tage (G. Frenssen).

danf thanks to, sometimes with gen., more commonly with dat.: danf des für die Jahreszeit besonders schönen Wetters (Schubin). Da ging Heim hinüber und setzte sich unter sie und war, danf des Festrausches, der auch ihn ergaßt hatte, fröhlich mit den Fröhlichen (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, chap. 7). Danf des Anhangs von Anverwandten und Freunden . . . gelang es bald, eine Mehrheit zu gewinnen (R. Huch's *Tenueleien*, p. 46).

diesseit or now more commonly **diesseits** on this side of, **jenseit** or now more commonly **jenseits** on that side of, **hüben und drüben** on both sides of, lit. on this side and that: diesseits des Flusses, jenseits des Grabes, hüben und drüben der Grenze. Sometimes von is used in connection with the regular form: Jenseit von des Orus Wegen (Rückert's *Morg.*, I, 251). Earlier in the period the dative sometimes occurs instead of the gen.: Diesseit den Alpen (Lessing). In case of proper names non-inflection of the noun is not infrequent: jenseits Bar.

einschließlich, see *ausschließlich*.

entlang, see *entlang* under 220. 2.

erfluß've, see *ausschließlich*.

gegenwärts in the presence of, or more commonly in Gegenwart: gegenwärts der Herren.

gelegentlich or **bei Gelegenheit** as to the topic of, apropos of, embracing the favorable opportunity of, upon the occasion of: gelegentlich dieser Gedichte will ich bemerken usw. Gelegentlich seiner Anwesenheit in der Stadt machte er einige Besuche. Gelegentlich (upon the occasion of) meines letzten Besuches auf Krassnawoda (the name of a village) lenkte sich das Gespräch auf einige neuerschienene Bücher.

gemäß (see *ausweislich*) in accordance with (the request, instructions, command of), sometimes w. gen. or more commonly and correctly w. dat. when standing before the noun, and w. dat. when following the noun. For explanation of the gen. see 2, above, toward end. The & found in compounds such as standesgemäß *in accordance with one's station in life*, wahrheitsgemäß *in accordance with the facts*, &c., is not the gen. ending, but the connecting & so often found in compounds after the analogy of gen. compounds, as in standeswidrig, wahrheitsgetreu, &c. Compare gemäß in 220. 2.

halb, halben, halber, wegen express:

1. a. A motive, cause, reason, with the general translation *on account of*, sometimes with the dat. in case of wegen: Ich bleibe des schlechten Wetters wegen

(or halber, halben) zu Hause. Der Strauß kann wegen seiner zu kurzen Flügel nicht fliegen. Of these words *wegen* is the most common in this meaning. The older form *von wegen* (dat. pl. of *Weg*) is still quite common in popular speech, and not infrequent in colloquial language: Lieber packe ich dir noch ein paar wollene Strümpfe, 'ne warme Unterhose und eine Reservenachtmütze zu, von wegen möglicher Erkältung bei dieser Erhitzung fürs allgemeine deutsche Vaterland (Raabe's *Gutmann's Reisen*, chap. i). For the dat. see *wegen*, below in the alphabetical arrangement.

b. A concern for a thing or that in regard to which some action is to be taken, or a regard for the interests of some one, translated by *for the sake of*, *on account of*, *with regard to*, *concerning*, *as far as it concerns* (me, you, him, &c.): *Wegen* (with regard to) vergessener Sachen wende man sich an das „Bureau für gefundenen Sachen.“ Zwischen dem Vollbauer (possessor of a hide of land) Friedrich Schmidt von hier und dessen Kindern ist folgender Kontrakt wegen (in regard to) Überlassung des hier belegenen Bauergutes abgeschlossen worden. Des Scheines halber for the sake of appearances, der Ehre halber, des Beispiels halber. This meaning is also quite common in compounds (see 140. *d* and *Note 1*) which these preps. form with the personal pronouns: Seien Sie *meinetwegen* (on my account) unbesorgt. *Meinetwegen* (as far as I am concerned, for ought I care) kann er gehen. Er hat es *meinethalben* or *meinethalb* (out of regard for me) getan. *Meinethalben* (as far as I am concerned, for ought I care) kannst du es tun. The form *halben* is more common in these compounds than *halb*. Feminine nouns often take the gen. ending *s* after the analogy of the masculines, and are then written as compounds: Höflichkeit*wegen* or *halber*, Gesundheit*wegen* or *halber*.

This meaning in case of *wegen* is especially frequent in the language of the common people, where the original form *von — wegen* (see *a*, above) is still much used: Es ist man (= nur) *von wegen* das Vieh (acc. instead of gen. in popular speech), daß ich fragen wollte (Wildenbruch's *Die Quitzows*, 1, 2). Earlier in the period this form was also used in the literary language: Gebt *Reichenschaft . . . von wegen* des vergessenen Blutes (Schiller's *Jungfrau*, 1, 11).

c. The source or direction from which something comes, or the instance or occasion which calls forth some act, *by*, *on the part of*, *in pursuance of*, *on the authority of*, *by the order of*. In the literary language this meaning, once so common, only survives in the form *von — wegen* in a limited number of expressions: *von Rechts wegen* by rights, *von Amts wegen* officially, *von Staats wegen* by the State, *von Obrigkeit wegen*, *von Regierung wegen*, *von Berufs wegen* professionally, *von Polizei wegen* by order of the police authorities. Ohne mir einen Vorwurf zu erlauben — ich meine, Durchlaucht sollten die Fundamente des Staates, zu dessen Hüter Sie von Geburt und Partei wegen berufen sind, ein wenig höher einschlagen (Sudermann's *Es lebe das Leben*, p. 21). In irgend einer Weise werden wir von *Fractions wegen* (as a party) wohl Stellung dazu nehmen müssen (ib., p. 52). Ich hatte zwei oder drei entfernte Verwandte von Vaters wegen (upon my father's side) (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, III, 2). Notice in the preceding examples that the fem. gen. sometimes takes the ending *s* after the analogy of the masculines.

Colloquially, and especially in popular speech, this usage is not confined to the group of expressions given above: Sag' ihm *von meinerwegen*, daß, &c. (Goethe) Tell him "for me" (as coming from me) that, &c. Es ist ja man (= nur) bloß *von Fräule Welfow* (acc. in popular speech instead of the gen.) *wegen*, daß ich gefragt gehabt habe (Wildenbruch's *Die Quitzows*, 1, 2) It is only at the instance of Fritz Belkow that I asked.

2. *Halb, halben, halber* always follow the noun or pronoun, while *wegen* may precede or follow: *wegen seines Fleißes* or *seines Fleißes wegen*, *unserer Freundschaft halber* or *halber*.

Halb is now only found in composition with *bei* and *weß*, and the personal pronouns (see 140. *d.* *Note 1*): *beßhalb* on account of that, *weßhalb* why, *meinethalb* for my sake, &c.

haben (but never halber) like halb enters into compounds with personal pronouns, and both haben and halber (now evidently the favorite, although haben is common earlier in the period) follow substantives, the latter often entering into a compound with them: *meinethalben*, eines kleinen Zwistes mit Schneider Busch *halben* (Raabe's *Pfisters Mühle*, IX), des lieben Friedens *halber*, Ordnungshalber (even fem. nouns taking s after the analogy of masc. in set expressions) for the sake of order, Krankheitshalber. Der Unruhen und der Unsicherheit halber wanderten viele Einwohner aus.

halbwegs, sometimes **halbweg** or **halbwege**, *halfway to, up, through, between*, with gen. except before names of places, where non-inflection is the rule: Man muß das Trinkwasser halbwegs des Berges holen (Auerbach's *Joseph*, chap. 1) One must go halfway to the mountain for water. Die Flüchtlinge erfuhren jetzt erst vom Waldrande aus, daß sie wohl halbwegs (halfway up) der Höhe der Berge sich befanden (Raabe's *Odfehl*, chap. xv). Halbwegs des Gedankens fällt ihm ein, &c. (Hebel, 3, 101) When he is halfway through the thought it occurs to him, &c. Der Verwalter von meinem Verwerk halbwegs Padua (Fulda's *Zwillingsschwester*, 2, 8) halfway to Padua. Der Vater und der Herr Behrend sind schon halbwege Blumack (Eckstein's *Familie Hartwig*). Halbwegs (s) Braunschweig und Hamburg halfway between B. and H.

herwärts = *dießseits*, **hinwärts** = *jenseits*, with gen., dat., or non-inflection as in case of *dießseits*.

hinsichtlich, **hinsichts**, **in Hinsicht** with regard or reference to, in consideration of (see *anbetriffs* and *rücksichtlich*): Hinsichtlich seines Fleißes kann ich nicht über ihn klagen. Synonymous with these preps. are *rücksichtlich* and *bezüglich*. Sometimes *hinsichtlich* takes after it auf (w. acc.) instead of the gen. as in case of *bezüglich*.

hinterrücks behind the back of: *hinterrücks* der Mutter.

hinterwärts back of: *hinterwärts* dieses Bauwerks

hinwärts, see *herwärts*.

hüben und drüben, see *dießseits*.

infolge and less frequently **zufolge** in consequence of: *infolge* or *zufolge* besonderer Umstände. Infolge einer abermaligen schlechten Ernte und arger Unterlassungssünden der Ortsbehörden herrscht in Scharbrinsk (in Rußland) Hungersnot. Compare this use of *zufolge* with that in 229. 2.

inhaltlich or **inhalts**, see *ausweislich* and *laut*.

inklusi've, see *ausschließlich*.

inmitten in the midst of, between, sometimes also w. dat. and w. von and dat.: Inmitten des Waldes stand ein altes Forsthaus. O Vaterland (Austria)! Inmitten | dem Kind Italien und dem Manne Deutschland | liegst du, der wangenrote Jüngling, da (Grillparzer's *König Ottokars Glück und Ende*, 3). Inmitten von Kummer und Gienß.

inner(t), see *inner(t)* under 231. II.

innerhalb, see *außerhalb*.

inwärts = *innerhalb* or *in*.

jenseits, see *dießseits*.

Kraft by virtue of, by dint of: *kraft* meines Amtes. For synonyms see *vermöge*, *Note*.

längs and **längst**, see *längs* under 229. 2.

längsseit *alongside of*: Das Boot glitt mit niedergeworfenen Segeln längsseit des Landungssteigs (Deutsche Rundschau, August, 1898, Heft II, xxiv). Also with dat.: Unser Boot legte sich längseit dem englischen Dampfer (Gerstäcker).

laut according to (the purport of a letter, command, law, agreement, &c.), w. gen. and sometimes also the dat., especially when the noun is without an article or other modifying word: Laut unserer Verabredung, laut seines Briefes.

Laut alter Verträge ist Ungarn mit Österreich unter einem Herrscher vereinigt. Laut Bericht, laut Uebereinkommen.

(a) Synonyms of *laut* are *inhalts* or *inhaltlich* (in official style), *zufolge* usually following the noun, *nach* (see *nach*, e. (2). *Note* in 229) usually before, but also after the noun: Das bestätigt sich *laut*, or *inhalts*, or *inhaltlich* neuerer Nachrichten, or *nach* neueren Nachrichten, or *neueren Nachrichten nach* or *zufolge*.

links to the left of, *rechts* to the right of, both with *gen.*, also with *von* + *dat.*, and always so in case of a pronominal object: *links*, *rechts* der Tür, or *von der Tür*. *Links* *von ihm* sah man mehrere holsteinische Geschichtswerke aufgeschlagen übereinander (Frenssen).

macht (rare) = *traft*.

mangels out of lack of, for want of, in default of: Er wurde *mangels* der Beweise freigesprochen. *Mangels* Zahlung in default of payment.

mittels, *vermittels*, or more commonly the corrupted forms with excrement *t* *vermittelft*, *mittelft* by, by means of: Viele Dampfschiffe werden *mittels* einer Schraube bewegt. *Mittels* Nachtmarsches war morgen früh vier Uhr die 18. Division vom linken auf dem rechten Moselufer eingetroffen (Moltke). We not infrequently find non-inflection of the noun here; see 2. a, above.

(a) Synonyms of *mittels*, *vermittels* are *von*, *durch*, *mit*. The *direct* source of an act is expressed by *von*, hence limited chiefly to a living, thinking agent. The *indirect* means by which the aim is attained is expressed by *durch*. The instrument which produced the *immediate* result is expressed by *mit*: Er wurde *von* (by — the agent and author of it all) dem Richter verurteilt, *durch* (as the indirect means) den Fenster *mit* (the instrument which produced the immediate result) dem Beil hingerichtet zu werden. Of these *durch* approaches the nearest to *mittels*, but the latter has a much more narrow range of usefulness. *Mittels* is only used of some force as a means or a dead instrument that is purposely utilized, directed, employed to lead to a certain definite end, while *durch* is used of a force that in itself has in some degree self-acting, transforming power, which, however, need not necessarily act toward some definite end: Mühlen werden *mittels* des Windes, des Wassers, der Dampfkraft bewegt. Das Schiff wird *durch* die Strömung abgetrieben. In (ver)*mittels* there also lies something of the technical, which does not admit of its use in elevated language so much. See also *vermöge*, *Note*. *Mit* is also used to express means and differs from *durch* in that it does not necessarily point to a result: Er will uns damit anlocken, but Er hat uns *dadurch* verlockt. In some cases either *mit* or *durch* can be used, the former calling attention to the effort and the means employed, the latter emphasizing the effective means and the result: einen *mit* Worten or *durch* Worte antreiben.

namens or *im Namen* in the name of: Das fordere ich *namens* des Königs.

niederwärts below.

nördlich to the north of, most commonly with *gen.*, also with *von* + *dat.*, sometimes with non-inflection in case of articleless names: *nördlich* des Rheins or vom Rhein; das kleine Gefecht bei Lundby *nördlich* Sobro.

nordwärts = *nördlich*, now most commonly with *gen.*, also with *von* + *dat.*, and sometimes with the simple *dat.*: an einzelnen Orten *nordwärts* der Alpen (*Zürcher Zeitung*, 11. Jan. 1903), *nordwärts* vom Rhein, occasionally *nordwärts* dem Rhein.

ob, see *ob* under 229. 2.

oberhalb above, see *außerhalb*

oberwärts = *oberhalb*.

often = *ostwärts* with the same construction, rare: Wo einst *often* dem Dorfe ein Hafen der gefährdeten Vitalienbrüder gewesen sein sollte, sah man jetzt, &c. (T. Storm's *Renati*, p. 1).

östlich to the east of, with gen. or prep. von + dat., or sometimes with non-inflection in case of articleless names, as in case of nördlich.

ostwärts = östlich, with the same construction as nordwärts.

punkto or in puncto (ablative of Latin punctum) = wegen on account of, with reference to, especially a legal term: „Du meinst, der General ist allen geistlichen Leuten auffällig?“ „Allen ohne Ausnahme, seit er puncto gottloser Reden prozessiert und um eine schwere Summe gebüßt wurde“ (C. F. Meyer). So mögen Sie sich, liebster Freund, den Weihnachtstrubel vorstellen, dem ich und meine Frau Do zwar freudig, aber doch mit einer gewissen Sorge in puncto unserer alten Köpfe und sonstigen mit seinen Nerven gesegneten Glieder entgegensehen (T. Storm an G. Keller, 23. Dezember 1880).

rechts, see links.

rings round about (rare): rings ihres kleinen Grabhügels (Ense's *Denk.*, 6, 558). Da ruhen die Gäste rings der Waldeswüste (Lenau). We usually find rings um (with acc.) here.

rittlings astraddle of, across: Die Infanterie entwickelte sich rittlings der Straße (Moltke).

rücksichtlich with respect to, in consideration of (see hinsichtlich): Die Arbeit verdient Lob hinsichtlich des Inhalts, aber hinsichtlich, or rücksichtlich, or bezüglich des Ausdrucks ist manches zu tabeln.

Note 1. The difference between hinsichtlich and rücksichtlich sometimes becomes more prominent when a motive enters as a factor into the case. Then the rück *back* in rücksichtlich requires this word to be used in case of circumstances that are already at hand, passed or finished, while the hin in hinsichtlich points to a future act or state of things: Ich tat es in Rücksicht or rücksichtlich des Vorteils, der mir daraus erwüchse I did it out of consideration of the advantage, gain that might come to me. Ich tue es hinsichtlich or in Hinsicht der guten Folgen, die daraus entspringen werden.

Note 2. Sometimes rücksichtlich takes after it the prep. auf (with acc.) instead of the gen., as in case of hinsichtlich and bezüglich.

rückwärts back of: seine Stellung rückwärts des rechten Flügels (of the army).

seitab' to one side of: Eine Dame hielt allein in der Einsamkeit, auch auf einem Mauertier, seitab des Weges auf einem Felsenvorsprung (Raabe's *Frau Salome*, chap. iii).

seitens, von sei'ten, absei'ten on the part of: Es steht seitens, or von seiten, or less commonly abseiten des Magistrats nichts entgegen. The first of these forms, although a new formation, is now very common.

seitlich alongside of: Nachdenklich gehe ich den langen Korridor hinunter, in dessen glänzend gebohnten Streifen, seitlich des grünen Läufers, sich die gelben Messinggriffe der Türen wieder spiegeln wie goldene, schwimmende Blumen (Anselm Heine's *Bis in das dritte und vierte Glied*).

seitwärts to the side of, most commonly with gen., also with von + dat., and usually so in case of a pronominal object, sometimes with simple dat.: seitwärts des heiligen Bezirks (*Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, 5. Dec. 1901), seitwärts von unserm Hofe (Storm), seitwärts von ihm (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, chap. iv), seitwärts diesem Platz (Stifter's *Stud.*, 1, 290).

statt, see anstatt.

südlich to the south of, now most commonly with gen., also with von + dat., sometimes with non-inflection in case of articleless names, as in case of nördlich.

südwärts = südlich, with the same construction as nordwärts.

trog in spite of, originally with dat., now also with gen., and perhaps more commonly so, but in the sense of *as well as, almost excelling, beating* usually with dat., as also in the expressions *trotzdem in spite of that* and *trog dem und alledem: trotz alles Widerstrebens* (Raabe's *Zum wilden Mann*, chap. ii), *trog seiner schneeweißen Haare und seiner wohlgezählten sechzig Jahre* (ib.); *trog ihrem Alter und ihrer Müdigkeit* (Raabe's *Höxter u. Corvey*, chap. i).

Gesund bin ich jetzt, trotz einem I am now as well as anybody. Er lügt trotz (almost excelling, beating) einem Zeitungsblatt, or trotz einem Münchhausen (the famous liar of fable). Er muß einen Wahrsagergeist haben trotz (equal to) der Magd in der Apostelgeschichte. See unangesehen.

Zum Trotz also governs the gen., but it may stand after the dependent noun, and governs then usually the dat.: Ich will doch einen großen Musikus aus dir machen zum Trotz eines jeden, der mich daran hindern will, but allem Menschenverstand zum Trotz (contrary to). Sometimes, however, the gen. is found when the dependent noun precedes: allen Abredens seiner guten Freunde zum Trotz (Raabe's *Deutscher Adel*, chap. vii).

um — **willen** for the sake of, on account of: um Gottes willen, um des lieben Friedens willen. The younger form *willen*, as in *ihrer selbst willen* (Rosegger), is not yet so common as the older *um* — *wissen*, while on the other hand the younger form *wegen* has supplanted in most cases the older *von* — *wegen*; see halb, above.

unangesehen setting aside, notwithstanding, heedless of, now rare, and usually replaced by **ungeachtet** or **unerachtet**, or the rarer forms of *ohngeachtet*, *ohnuerachtet*, either preceding or following the noun, usually with gen., but sometimes with dat., when the prep. stands after the pronoun or substantive: ungeachtet des Wetters, des Wetters ungeachtet, dessenungeachtet, or sometimes demungeachtet (Marriot's *Seine Gottheit*, chap. ii) *notwithstanding that*, aller persönlichen Erlebnisse und Kummernisse unerachtet (Wildenbruch's *Vice-Mama*), allen Unfällen ungeachtet (Lessing), allem Abmahren Trubs unerachtet (Fontane's *Grete Minde*, chap. iii), aller Barbeißigkeit ohngeachtet (Raabe's *Frau Salome*, chap. viii).

Trotz is a synonym of ungeachtet, but is a much stronger word implying a more forcible resistance to obstacles: Er geht ungeachtet or trotz des schlechten Wetters spazieren, but only Er läuft trotz seines Stelzfußes (wooden leg).

unbeschadet without waiving, without detriment to, with gen. usually, but sometimes with the dat., usually found before the noun, but sometimes after it: unbeschadet meines Anspruchs, meiner Rechte; unbeschadet Verlichingen (dat.) und unserer Verbindung (Goethe's *Götz*, 2, 7); dem Ausdrucke unbeschadet (Lessing).

unerachtet, see unangesehen.

unfern or **unweit** not far from, usually with gen., not infrequently with dat., sometimes with von and dat., or in case of names of places with non-inflection of the noun: unfern des Feuers (Goethe), unweit des Dorfes (id.), eine verlassene Glashütte im Gebirge unweit der Schneegruben (G. Hauptmann), unfern dem Haß und dem Missethate (H. Hoffmann), unfern von Douay (Ranke), unweit von meines Vaters Stube (T. Storm), unweit Pilsau (Moltke).

ungeachtet, see unangesehen.

ungerechnet not counting: ungerechnet des Qualmes. Sanders gives a number of references in his *Ergänzungswörterbuch*, p. 409. The absolute construction with an absolute acc. is more common here: Das Buch kostet, den Einband ungerechnet, fünf Mark.

unterhalb, see außerhalb.

unterwärts down; unterwärts des Stroms, unterwärts (at the foot of) des Berges.

unweit, see unfern.

vermittels and **vermittelst**, see mittels.

vermöge, earlier in the period nach Vermöge (old noun, now obs.), in virtue of, through, by means of, in consequence of, by reason of, only rarely with dat.: vermöge (through) seiner Redlichkeit. Alle Körper streben vermöge (in consequence of) ihrer Schwere nach dem Mittelpunkt der Erde. Die Lande Österreich und Steier fallen, vermöge dem Majestätsbrief Kaiser Friedrichs, wohl an des letzten Lehnherrn Tochter (Grillparzer's *König Ottokar*, 2).

Note. Synonymous with *vermöße* are *kraft* and *mittels*. *Vermöße* and *kraft* have much the same range of meanings, and are often almost identical. The latter, however, often emphasizes the actual *exercise* or *employment* of power, be it a natural force or power invested in one from without, while *vermöße* denotes an inherent *natural* force or power which is inseparably connected with the nature of a person or thing, and is conceived of as self-acting, as all natural forces: *Er selbst, der nur mittelmäßig Begabte, hatte auf seinem Felde Nühmliches geleistet, aber kraft* (by dint of) *seiner sittlichen Eigenschaften, nicht durch eine geniale Anlage* (Meyer). *Kraft* (by virtue of) *der Gewalt, die mir gelichen ist, kraft* (by virtue of) *meines Amtes, unseres Vertrages*. *Ein Stein fällt vermöße seiner Schwere zu Boden*. *Vermöße des Verstandes bildet man Begriffe*. *Die Maschine wird vermöße* (or more commonly *vermittelt*) *des Dampfes bewegt*. Here *vermöße* touches *vermittelt*, but differs from it in that it represents the power as a natural force, while *vermittelt* represents it as controlled and operated by some one; see *a*, under *mittels*.

von seiten, see *seitens*.

von wegen has not the full causal force of *wegen*, but only the original meanings, *by the way of*, *on the part of*, *concerning*, *at the instance of*. *Wegen* without *von* has developed causal force, and in this meaning is widely used, while *von wegen* is now only found in a few set expressions (see *halb*, I. c) in the literary language, usually with its original force, but it is still often employed by the common people in both the old and the new meaning (see also *halb* I. a, b and c).

vorbehaltlich, vorbehältlich, unter Vorbehalt with reservation of, upon the condition of: *Sie* (die Verträge) *wurden von der preussischen Regierung vorbehaltlich der Zustimmung ihrer Zollverbündeten am 2. August 1862 unterzeichnet*.

vorwärts in front of.

während during, usually with the gen., but also occasionally the dat., especially when the gen. does not differ in form from the nom. and acc.: *Während des Krieges schweigen die Geseze*. *Während fünf Tagen, währenddessen, or quite frequently währenddem*. *Während* usually takes the dat. in case of the masc. and neut. sing. of the relative and interrogative pronoun *welcher*: *Erinnerst du dich noch jenes Gewitters, während welchem ich dich dort traf ganz unter dem Vorsprung gedrückt?* (Raabe's *Frühling*, chap. v).

wegen, or in colloquial language also still in the older form *von wegen*, on account of, with reference to, concerning (for other meanings see *halb*, I. c, above), usually with gen., but colloquially not infrequently with dat.: *Ich schäme mich von wegen dem ewigen Lug und Trug* (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. xxiv). The dat. is most common in the literary language where a gen. depends upon the governed noun, or where the gen. form has not an ending which clearly marks it as a gen.: *wegen Umbau des Hauses*. *Sie will mich wegen Sommerfesten* (the gen. would not be different in form from nom. or acc.) *um Rat fragen* (Fulda's *Die wilde Jagd*, 3, 2). *Wegen etwas anderem* (also the wk. gen. *anderen*, but not *anderes*, as it would not be felt as a gen.) *on account of something else*. Sometimes before unmodified nouns: *Die Bücher liegen hier bloß wegen Friedeberg, den ich der beigegebenen Zeichnungen halber fragen will* (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. 6). *So ist dir vielleicht lieber, du läst dich abends wegen Ausbleiben von deinem Vater und deiner Mutter durchrügeln* (Raabe). „*Hast du Kummer?*“ *Sie nickte*. „*Kummer wegen Vater?*“ (Ompteda's *Sylwester von Geyer*, LXII). Sometimes with non-inflection: *Wegen dies und das!* (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, III, 1). See also *halb*, above.

westlich west of, with gen., sometimes with non-inflection in case of articleless names, or prep. *von*, as in case of *nördlich*.

westwärts = *westlich*.

willen, see *um* — *willen*.

zeit in the time of, in a few expressions: *zeit meines Lebens, zeitlebens* in one's lifetime.

zufolge, see *infolge*, above.

zu Gunsten, **zugunsten** in favor of, for the sake of, **zu Ungunsten**, **zu ungunsten** against, with *gen.*, but with *dat.* when the preposition follows the word: Der Richter hat zu Gunsten des Verklagten und zu Ungunsten des Klägers entschieden. Der Ruhm einer Universität sollte nicht sowohl in der großen Zahl hundert durcheinander gewürfelter Hörer und inskribierter Studenten, als in der nachweisbaren Gebiegenheit ihrer Lehrersfolge und diesen zugunsten in der vornehmen Ablehnung zweifelhafter Besucher ihres Auditoriums gesucht werden (H. Keferstein, in *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, 28. Oct. 1901).

zunächst, see *nächst* under the *dative* in 229. 2.

zu seiten *along the sides of*: die Bäume zu seiten des Weges.

zugänglich *with the addition of*, opposite of *abzüglich*: zugänglich der Fracht.

zwecks, see *beßufß*.

MEANING AND USE OF PREPOSITIONS WITH THE DATIVE.

229. 1. The prepositions that properly govern the *dat.* govern also other cases only in a few words, as they are in large part old, and usage has at last definitely fixed their construction. On the other hand, a goodly number of the preps. governing the *gen.* govern also, as can be seen by a study of the preceding article, the *dative*. The reason of this partly lies in various analogies in meaning, as *laut according to* in analogy with *nach according to*, *unweit not far from*, *jenseits on that side*, &c., expressing, in general, rest as in case of *bei by*, *neben near*, &c., may take the *dat.* instead of the more correct *gen.* There is also a decided feeling against a too frequent occurrence of the *s* in the *gen.*, which leads often to the choice of the *dat.* instead of the more correct *gen.*; see 228. 2. a, 2nd paragraph. This same feeling, on the other hand, helps to preserve a *dat.*, where there is in general a tendency away from it, as after *troß* in the following passage from Hans Hoppfen: Die rauhe Welt, darin man sein Brot im Schweiße des Angesichts zu verdienen hat und oft genug nicht einmal weiß, wie man das anfangen soll *troß* Mut, und Fleiß, und Zeugnis und Diplom (from the university).

2. The following are the prepositions with the *dat.* with their leading meanings, the preps. standing in alphabetical order.

ab (a) *from*, of time or place = *von*, now replaced by the latter except in S.W. dialect, where it is still frequently used, also in the literary language in the set expression *abhan'den misplaced*. It is used quite frequently in business style before local adverbs, names of places, and before nouns or adverbs of time, where, however, it may be the Latin prep. *ab*: Fracht *ab* hier kostet 10 Mark. Unfrankiert *ab* hier charges of transportation from this point not paid (by the sender); *ab* Berlin, 7 the train leaves Berlin at 7 o'clock; zu vermieten *ab* Ostern for rent after Easter; *ab* heute in 14 Tagen zu liefern (to be delivered).

(b) In a number of common commercial expressions *ab* has quite a different meaning, with the force of *at*, usually found before the name of some city, or some definite place, as *Bahn* railroad track, *Schiff* ship, *Bahnhof* depot, *Kahn* boat, &c., indicating that the prices of goods quoted apply only to their delivery at the place mentioned, and that all future expenses in transportation must be born by the purchaser. The word *frei to be delivered free* is often found before these same places to indicate that free delivery is only to the mentioned place: *frei ab* Berlin, *frei ab* Bahnhof.

Note. Often the prep. *ab* is entirely dropped after *frei* or *franko delivered free of charge*: Ich liefere den Weizen f. (franko) Berlin.

auss (a) movement from the inside of, *out of, from*: Er geht *auss* dem Hause, *auss* dem Lande.

(b) Origin, source, *from* (see *Note* under von, d): Er stammt aus guter Familie. Er ist aus der Schweiz He comes from Switzerland. Ein Weib aus dem Volk (common people), aus Versehen by mistake. Origin of knowledge, feeling: Ich weiß es aus Erfahrung. Aus dem Auge schließt man aufs Herz From one's eye, we judge of the heart. Er bewies es aus der Bibel.

(c) Material, *out of*: aus weichem Ton gebildet. Granit besteht aus Feldspat, Quarz und Glimmer.

Note. With materials, von is used before nouns without an article, replacing the gen. case, and thus forms with its noun an adj. element, standing attributively, or as a predicate adj., while aus with nouns of material forms an adverbial element, representing the object as *being fashioned out of* the mentioned material: ein Ring von Gold a gold ring. Der Ring ist von Gold, but Der Goldschmied verfertigt Ringe aus Gold. Compare von, f.

(d) Motive, *from*: Aus welchem Grunde tat er das? Er handelt aus Liebe, Haß, Trog. Er tat es aus freien Stücken (from his own free will).

(e) Figuratively in many ways corresponding to the above lit. meanings: Er hat mich aus (out of) mancher Verlegenheit gerissen. Er lachte aus vollem Halse He laughed heartily. Was wird aus ihm werden? What will become of him? Ein Märchen aus alten Zeiten, das kommt mir nicht aus dem Sinn (from a poem by Heine).

(f) Synonymous with aus is von, and sometimes vor. In aus lies the idea of movement *out of* or *from within* something, while von merely states that the movement begins *near* or *from* something: Die Quellen kommen oft aus den Bergen, but Die Flüsse kommen von den Bergen. Er steigt aus dem Wasser, but Er bricht den Apfel vom Baume. Der Reiter steigt aus dem Sattel, but vom Pferde. When we desire to express movement from something that threatens personal safety, then vor is the word: Er errettete seinen Freund aus dem Gefängnis und damit vor (from) dem Henkerbeil.

bei 1. Now usually with dat. expressing nearness to some object in a general and indefinite way, but neighborhood or conjunction without contact, thus differing in part from neben, which denotes *close* approach to the *side* of an object but without contact, and differing from an in that the latter denotes a closer approach and very often contact with the side of the object in question: Er stand bei or neben dem Baume, but Der Apfel hängt am Baume. Only rest can be expressed by bei, and for motion we use an, neben, zu, of which an expresses motion close up to an object, often till it touches it, neben direction toward the side of an object without contact, zu movement toward, much as an, but differing therefrom in that it expresses a close and intimate relation between the persons and things thus brought together: Er setzte sich an (at) den Tisch, or neben (near) den Tisch, but zu (by) mir (in order to chat). See *Note* under zu.

(a) Especially frequent is bei in the sense of *bordering upon, in the vicinity of*: Sachsenhausen bei Frankfurt, Linden bei Hannover. Die Schlacht bei Leipzig the battle of Leipzig.

(b) Nearness applied to things in its metaphorical use (1) expressing usually a condition of things: Er ist noch bei Leben He is still alive. Er ist schon bei Jahren He is already quite old. Er ist nicht mehr bei Kräften He is no longer strong. Er ist nicht bei Gelde He is out of money. Es bleibt beim alten The old order of things still remains. Er ist bei gutem Mut, guter Gesundheit. Bei Gericht at court. (2) *In, in connection with, in case of*: Bei diesem Geschäft kommt nichts heraus In this business there is no money made. Dieses Präparat ist bereits von vielen Ärzten als ein spezifisches Heilmittel bei (in case of) giftigen Leiden erkannt worden. (3) A succession, *after*: Pfeiler bei Pfeiler stürzte nieder. (4) Occupation, *at, busied with, over, all wrapped up in*: Er ist bei (at) der Arbeit. Er ist beim Anziehen He is dressing. Er sitzt immer bei den Büchern He is always poring over his books. Sie saßen plaudernd beim Bier. Sie war mit ganzer Seele bei der Sache She was all wrapped up (deeply interested) in the affair. Er bleibt bei der Sache He sticks to the point.

(c) Nearness to persons, *at the house of, place of business of, upon the person of*: bei (at the house of) dem Herrn Schmidt, bei mir at my house, bei (at the store of) dem Buchhändler, bei einem Professor hören to attend the lecture of a certain professor. Das bekommen Sie bei Schmidt You can buy that at Schmidt's (store). Er hat ein Konto bei (at) der Bank. Ich habe keinen Pfennig, kein Schnupftuch bei mir (upon my person).

(d) Nearness applied to persons in its metaphorical use, *with, in the case of, in, to, in the works of*: Ich halte es bei ihm nicht aus I can't get along with him. Er gilt viel bei ihm He passes for a good deal with him. Ekt weibliche Naturen sind jedoch in der Regel entschlossenen Geistes; so war es auch bei (in the case of) dem sanften, bescheidenen Fräulein. Bei dir (in your case) wird die Hälfte genügen. Bei euch Jungen muß man streng sein *In case of or with you* boys one must be strict. Bei uns zu Lande in our country. Er beklagte sich bei mir He complained to me. Er kann nichts bei (to) sich behalten (keep). Das Wort kommt bei (in the works of) Goethe nicht vor.

(e) Bei often marks a conjunction or near association of two things, of which the one denoted by the object of bei :

(1) Marks the time of the other, *at, upon the occasion of, at the time of, when, in, by*: Bei einer Hochzeit lernte ich ihn kennen. Nach näherer Feststellung sind bei den letzten Überschwemmungen 500 Tote aufgefunden worden. Er half beim Aussteigen He helped us when we were getting off the train. Bei ziemlich jungen Jahren wurde er zum Kardinal befördert When quite young he was promoted to be a cardinal. Bei (in) der Unterhaltung ist er ein guter Gesprächspartner. Noch bei Menschengedenken within the memory of man, bei Tag, bei Nacht by day, by night.

(2) Marks the cause of the other: Bei de'r Teuerung kann ich nichts kaufen I can buy nothing when or since everything is so dear. Bei solchem Fleiß muß es ihm gelingen With such industry he must succeed. Bei günstigem Winde segelt man schnell. Er zittert bei einem Gewitter. Bei zwei gegen eins ist die Partie ungleich Two against one is not fair.

(3) Marks a concession in spite of which, however, the other statement is true, *with, in spite of*, usually followed by *als*: Bei aller stillen Sanftmut ihres Wesens war sie doch äußerst scharfblickend In spite of all the gentleness of her nature she was nevertheless keen of observation. Bei allem Fleiß ist es ihm doch nicht gelungen.

(4) Marks the means of accomplishing the other: Er liest bei Licht. Er nennt ihn beim Namen.

(5) Marks an accompanying circumstance of the other, *along with, together with, in*: Eine Buchbinderei, welche ebenso wohl die leichteren einfachen, als die schwierigen eleganten Einbände, in gebiegener und geschmackvoller Ausstattung bei unübertroffener Haltbarkeit zu liefern im Stande ist. Und bei solchen Kameralverhältnissen reisen Sie in Europa herum? And when you are in such a state of finance you travel about in Europe?

(6) Marks the condition on which the other can occur: Meine Preise für das Präparat sind 85 Pfg. (Pfennig) per Gramm, bei (on condition that the purchaser buys as much as) 10 Gramm 75 Pfg., bei 100 Gramm 70 Pfg. Bei 20 M. franco delivered free, if purchased to the amount of 20 marks.

(7) Marks the manner: Sie kommen bei (or zu or in) Paaren, or Paar und Paar. Man verkauft etwas bei or nach Hunderten.

(f) In oaths and kindred strong statements, *by, upon*: Ich schwöre bei Gott. Er versicherte es mir bei (upon) seiner Ehre. Beim Himmel, dieses Kind ist schön!

(g) Fixes the penalty: Es ist bei Leib und Leben verboten It is forbidden at the penalty of death. In threats: Bei Leibe nicht! Not if you value your life!

(h) With numerals to express approximately distance, quantity, &c.: bei mehreren Schritten Entfernung at a distance of several paces.

Note. Sometimes without governing a case, after the manner of an adverb, when it is synonymous with *gegen* (about, not much less), *an* (very little less, perhaps reaching the number), *auf* as high as (the highest limit), but differing from them in that it expresses indefinitely an approach in general, perhaps more, perhaps less, and, moreover, is not used so often: *Das kostet mich gegen, an, auf, bei 30 Taler.* Of these *gegen* also approaches *um*, but they differ in that the latter means rather *not much more* or *less*.

(i) The measure of difference: *Er ist bei weitem* (by far) *der fähigste.*

(j) *Bei* expresses sometimes a closer approach and even contact, especially in case of a part of the body with verbs of seizing, and a few set expressions: *Er faßte ihn beim* (by) *Kopf, bei der Hand, bei den Haaren, beim Rockzipfel.* *Wir fangen beim ersten Kapitel des Buches an.* *Er hat alles bei Heller und Pfennig bezahlt* He has paid everything up to the last penny.

2. *Bei* now rarely takes the acc. except in a few set expressions: *bei Seite* gehen to go to one side, *einen bei Seite nehmen* to take somebody to one side, *etwas bei Seite bringen* to take something secretly away. However, in the North the acc. is often heard with verbs of motion in colloquial language, and hence often appears in literature: *Herr, wen der heute Abend zu seiner Suppe einlädt, dem wird er auch einen schlimmen Köffel bei den Napf legen* (Raabe's *Odfeld*, chap. iv). *Ich muß bei een Herrn uff'n Bahnhof jehn* (Fielitz, in Hauptmann's *Der rote Hahn*).

Earlier this acc. was common, and is especially frequent with Luther: *Da aber Saulus gen Jerusalem kam | versuchte er sich bey die Jünger zu machen* (Acts ix. 26).

beenebst, see *nebst*.

innen within, sometimes with dat., sometimes with gen.; see *innen* in 228. 4.

danf thanks to, usually with dat., sometimes with gen.: *Ich bin, danf Ihren Bemühungen, gerettet.* See also *danf* in 228. 4.

entgegen against, contrary to, either following or, perhaps, more commonly preceding the dependent word: *entgegen unserem Abkommen* or *unserem Abkommen entgegen.* *Ihre Haare waren ein wenig zottig, was ich aber, entgegen meiner sonstigen Gesichtsmaschierung, sehr liebrend fand* (R. Huch's *Erinnerungen von Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. iii). Sometimes it *must* stand before the noun, so that it can be distinguished from the adverb *entgegen*, which follows the noun, and has sometimes quite a different meaning: *Er kam, entgegen meinen Wünschen* He came contrary to my wishes, but *Er kam meinen Wünschen entgegen* He met my wishes (complied with them).

For full description of its use as a prep. and adv. see *a*, under its synonym *zuwider*, below.

entlang, see *längs*.

gegenüber over against, opposite, standing before the dependent noun, or following it, the latter almost always in case of pronouns: *Gegenüber dem Sofa, or Dem Sofa gegenüber hing ein großes Bild.* *Gegenüber der Festung Ehrenbreitstein liegt die Stadt Koblenz.* *Er nahm ihm grad gegenüber Platz.*

(a) *gegenüber* (see its synonym *gegen*, *d*) in its figurative use is translated by *with respect to*, *towards*, *in the face of*, *in contrast to*: *Diesem stillen Wühlen, Planschmieden und Vorbereiten seiner Jungsbrüder gegenüber* (with respect to) *verhielt sich Gerhard Michwin kalt und zweideutig.* *Er sah voraus, daß seine Stellung* (attitude) *dem Justizrat gegenüber* (toward) *recht ärgerlich war.* *Gegenüber* (in the face of) *diesen Tatsachen kann nichts mehr beschönigt werden.* *Gegenüber* (in contrast to) *dem seit Einführung des Christentums sinkenden Latein trieben auf anderer Schicht und Unterlage die Romansprachen* (Romance languages) *empor* (Grimm).

(b) Earlier *gegenüber* was separated into its two component elements: *Ich sah mich gegen dem hohen Wall über* (Goethe). Also the poetical form *genüber* is used: *Wie oft war sie an Festen mir genüber* (Grillparzer).

(c) Sometimes the gallicism *gegenüber von* instead of *gegenüber* is found: *Es*

gibt so hübsche Häuser am Bollwerk, eins zwischen Konsul Martens und Konsul Grügmacher und eins am Markt, gerade gegenüber von Giesshübler (name) (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. x).

gemäß in accordance with the nature of, in accordance with the command, instructions, &c. of, either preceding or following the noun; in the former sense uniformly with the dat., in the latter sometimes also with the gen. when standing before the noun, after the analogy of in Gemäßheit and zufolge (see gemäß, 228. 4): Er lebte seiner Gesinnung und seinem Stande gemäß sehr einsam. Gemäß deinem Wunsche or deinem Wunsche gemäß. Jeder Staatsbürger soll den Gesetzen des Landes gemäß sich verhalten. Gemäß, or in Gemäßheit, or more commonly zufolge des erhaltenen Auftrags, or very commonly Dem erhaltenen Auftrag gemäß or zufolge überfende ich Ihnen die verlangten Werke.

längs, rarely längst, along, with gen., or perhaps more commonly the dat., preferring the position before the noun; entlang, rarely entlangst = längs, sometimes with gen., usually with the acc., less commonly with the dat., more frequently following the noun: längs dem Ufer or des Ufers, längst des Gitters (Schnitzler's *Die Gefährtin*, p. 69), das Thal entlang or dem Thal entlang, entlang des Waldgebirges (Schiller), des Weges entlang (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, III, 7), entlang einem Waldsteig (Rosegger), entlang dem unteren Rande des Segels (T. Storm), entlang dem Waldestande (id.), entlang die lange Straße (Rückert). Instead of these forms lang with acc. is often heard in N.G. dialect or colloquial speech: Er ist die Straße lang gegangen.

Originally entlang was an adverb, and is still so used: Felix, die Hände in den Taschen seines kurzen Hausrockes, kam entlang (Junghans). Er kam am Bach entlang.

mit corresponds to Eng. *with* very closely in its varied meanings, and hence is not treated here in detail: Der Vater geht mit den Kindern aus. Sie sprechen mit einander. Sie arbeiten mit Fleiß.

(a) When events or ideas stand in close relation *with* a person or thing, mit may mean *with reference to*: Was gibt's mit dem Schmettwitz? What is that matter with reference to (Mr.) Schmettwitz? Nun sag', wie hast du's mit der Religion? How do you stand with reference to religion? Das mit dem Brief müssen wir uns noch überlegen We must reflect over that plan we have concerning the letter.

(b) In many idiomatic expressions mit is used where in English other words are found, or it is not used where the English requires *with*: Er ist mit meinem Bruder gleichen Alters He is of the same age as my brother. Ich wohnte mit ihr in demselben Hause I lived in the same house that she did. Meine Schwester wohnt zwar in demselben Hause, sogar an ein und demselben Flur mit ihm (Ertl's *Der Handschuh*). Der Gärtner reißt die Pflanze mit (by) der Wurzel aus. Mit einmal (all at once) sprangen die Flügel auf. Er traf mit (on) dem letzten Zug ein. Das ist sein Fall That is the case with him. Er neckte mich mit (about) ihr. Ich war immer ein unheimlicher, garstiger, brummiger Kerl, mit dem man die kleinen Kinder fürchten machen konnte. Mit einem Schläge at one blow, mit einem Worte in a word, mit der ersten Gelegenheit by (at) the first opportunity, mit der Post by mail, mit der Eisenbahn by rail, verwandt mit related to, mit Vorsatz on purpose. Ich bin Geschwisterkind mit ihm (ihr) We are cousins. 6 mit (by) 3 multipliziert gibt 18. Er spricht mit (to or with) ihr darüber. Mit dem (in his) fünften Jahre lernte er lesen. Was meinen Sie mit (by) diesen Worten?

(c) For the relation of mit to its synonyms mittels, von, durch, vermöge, see mittels in 228. 4.

(d) With verbs, in the function of an adverb, mit has a different meaning according as it is accented or unaccented. Under stress, mit implies a close union and cooperation in the activity expressed by the verb, while unaccented it relinquishes the accent to the verb, and hence expresses mere contemporaneity or indicates that the main stress lies in the activity: Wir wollen mit'arbeiten We desire to work along with you. Wir wollen mit a'rbeiten We desire to work too (at the same time as you work). Wer nicht mit a'rbeitet, soll

auch nicht mit eßen Who does not join with us in *working* shall also not join with us in *eating*. An accented mit is often used where we use the pronominal adj. *one*: Er war mit dabei He was one of the party. Er war mit der beste Schüler in der Klasse He was one of the best pupils in the class.

mitsamt, see *samt*.

nach (a) direction towards, without implying whether the goal is reached or not, in the *direction of*. In this use *nach* has the same general force as *gegen* (less common except in set expressions): Die Mutter blickte nach den Kindern. Er lenkt seine Schritte nach or gegen Westen. Das Haus liegt nach or gegen Norden. Das Fenster geht nach dem Hofe The window looks out upon the courtyard.

Sometimes with the adv. *zu* or *hin*: Er reitet nach dem Walde zu. Der Fluß wird nach seiner Mündung hin schiffbar.

Figuratively: Die Mutter sieht nach den Kindern Mother looks after the children. Mir ist nicht nach Lachen zu Sinn I don't feel in a laughing mood.

(b) A definite goal (for modification of this rule see *Note* under *zu*), *to*, only used of things: Er geht nach der Stadt, nach Berlin. Wie komme ich nach der Friedrichstraße? How can I get to Friedrich Street from here?

Note 1. When the definite goal is a person in the literal sense, *zu* must be used, for *nach* (see c) has quite a different meaning: Er geht zu ihm He goes to him, to his house to see him, but Er geht nach ihm He goes to fetch him.

Note 2. Notice the idiomatic distinction: Er geht nach Hause and Er ist zu Hause. A little earlier in the period, *zu* could also be used for motion toward: als wir zu Hause gingen (Hebbel's *Agnes Bernauer*, i, 5).

(c) Motion towards a person or thing with the intention of obtaining it, bringing it back, using, enjoying, hitting, or injuring it, *after*, *for*, *at*: Er reicht nach (after) dem Apfel. Er läuft nach (for) dem Arzt. Er geht nach (after) Wasser. Der Hund schnappte nach (at) mir. Er sehnt sich (longs to be) nach (in) Berlin, nach (with) der Braut hin. Er fragt nach (after) ihm, nach der Ursache. Ein Herr ist da nach dem Eckzimmer A gentleman is here enquiring after (with a view to renting) the corner room.

(d) A following or succession in space or time, of persons or things, *after*: Er ging nach mir He went after I did. Er zog es nach sich He dragged it after him. Nach Jahren years afterward, nach Tisch after mealtime. Nach getaner Arbeit ist gut ruhen. Expressing rank: Er ist nach dem Kaiser der erste Mann.

Note. Synonymous with *nach* in this use is *hinter*, only, however, when the idea of place is quite prominent: Die Minister kamen nach or hinter (following from behind) dem Könige.

(e) *Nach* standing before and sometimes after the noun denotes a correspondence, accordance between things, signifying:—

(1) Likeness, *of*: Es schmeckt nach Wein It tastes of wine. Es riecht nach Weiden.

(2) The model or pattern after which something is fashioned or done, the standard of judgment or authority cited, or that which has guided the action: ein Lustspiel nach dem Französischen a comedy following freely the pattern of the French original. Er malt ihn nach der Natur He is painting him from nature. Er nannte sich nicht nach (after) seinem Vater. Ich kenne ihn nur dem Namen nach (by). Sie singt nach (by) Noten. Sie tanzen nach dem Takte They dance keeping good time. Sein Standpunkt, nach mir (judged by my standard), ist nicht sehr hoch. Seinem Alter nach (judging by) konnte er klüger handeln. Nach (according to the authority of) Engelen tönt das auslautende ng wie nk. Die Menschen beurteilt man am sichersten nach (by) ihren Taten. Richtet euch nach meinen Worten und nicht nach meinen Taten Be guided by my words and not by my actions. Man empfängt den Mann nach (according to) seinem Kleide, aber entläßt ihn nach seiner Rede.

Note. Synonymous with *nach* are *gemäß*, *zufolge*, *laut*. *Nach* differs from them all in that the action, judgment, idea, expressed, is usually conceived of as a free one, the aim being to struggle to reach the model, pattern, standard, authority that has been set up, while the other prepositions imply that the resulting action is actually in accord with or in pursuance of these things, acknowledging their force and authority: *Er kleidet sich seinem Stande gemäß* He dresses as is becoming his station, as is required by one in his station. *Die Schotten kleiden sich zum Teil nach alter Landes- sitte* The Scotch still dress according to the old customs of their country (following these older patterns voluntarily). *Er richtet sich nach den Gesetzen* He conforms voluntarily to the laws. *Ihrem Wunsche zufolge schicke ich Ihnen das Buch* In accordance with your request I send you the book. *Es ging nach Wunsch* It went off just as I desired it (but not necessarily because I desired it thus). *Laut früherer Verträge machte Friedrich der Große seine Ansprüche auf Schlesien geltend* Frederic the Great laid claim to Silesia upon the grounds of former treaties. Even where the idea of necessity enters into the case, *nach* implies more the *following of a model, standard, or wise course* than *obeying the instructions* (as *zufolge*) of an order: *Der Lehrer muß sich nach dem Fassungsvermögen seiner Schüler richten* The teacher must regulate himself according to the comprehension of his pupils.

These words sometimes approach one another very closely in the sense of *from the purport of*: *Laut* (according to) *seines Briefes* wird er heut kommen. *Einem Brief zufolge* (according to) kommt unser Freund. *Nach* (according to) *diesem Briefe* muß unser Freund bald kommen.

(*f*) *Nach* has as an adverb in general the same meanings as the prep., but sometimes shades of difference arise as a prep. shows the relation between a verb and a noun (or pronoun) which is supposed to represent an object at rest, while the adv. *nach* must modify immediately the verb, and hence must have reference alone to verbal action, and can refer to objects in motion: *Er lief nach* (after) *dem Arzt*, but *Er lief dem Diebe nach* He ran after the (fleeing) thief.

nächst or *zunächst* next to, the former used literally and figuratively, the latter only of the place where, are formed from the superlative of *nahe* *near*, and still preserve its original meaning *nearest to*: *ein Haus nächst der Brücke*. *Ihr Bruder saß nächst mir*. *Er ist nächst dir der älteste*. *Nächst Gott kann ein Mensch dem andern am meisten nützen*. *Zunächst* may precede or follow the noun, and sometimes governs the gen. when it precedes the noun: *zunächst dem Bahnhof*, or *dem Bahnhof zunächst*; *zunächst des Meeres* (Goethe). With adverb: *Er wohnt hier zunächst* He lives next door.

nebst and the strengthened form *beenebst* (in the language of the common people) = *zugleich mit* together with: *Die Stadt sah den Hunger nebst seinem ganzen Folge mit schrecklichen Schritten sich nähern* (Goethe).

(*a*) Synonymous with *nebst* are *mit* and *samt* with its strengthened forms *mitsamt*, *zusamt*, *zusamt* *mit*. Of these *mit* has the broadest meaning, as can be seen by consulting this word above. It differs from the others in that it expresses a closer and more intimate relation between the objects or persons in question, but may also usually replace the other two even in their especial fields. *Nebst* and *samt* denote a connection (see *b*), a being together, an acting or being acted upon at the same time, with the distinction not always clearly marked that the former expresses a looser connection which can easily be severed, while the latter denotes that the connection is a usual and natural association, not, however, a live mutual cooperation as with *mit*: *Zur Aussteuer erhält die verheiratete Karoline Schmidt 1 Kuh nebst 8 Schafen*. *Die Wirt- schaft ist zu verkaufen nebst den anstoßenden Grundstücken*. *Das Schiff samt der ganzen Mannschaft und Ladung ward ein Raub der Wellen*. *Die Mutter nebst* or *samt ihren Kindern*, but *Er hat den Baum samt der Wurzel ausgerottet*.

(*b*) *Nebst*, *samt*, and *mit* often have the force of the conjunction *und*, connecting only nouns or pronouns, thus not showing the relation directly between a verb and a noun, and hence when so used they are treated as conjunctions taking the verb in the pl., especially earlier in the period: *Und Saul samt*

allen memmern Israel freueten sich (1 Sam. xi. 15). Der Pfarrer mit dem Vater gingen bedenklich dem Gemeindehause zu (Goethe). Ein Bedienter nebst einem Postillon folgten mir (id.). Present usage prefers the sing. in such cases in accordance with strict grammatical concordance: Rechtliche mit ihren zwei Söhnen erscheint auf der Bühne (M. Greif's *Heinrich der Löwe*, 5, 1). See also 253. I. 1. d.

nid = unter (half) in Swiss dialect, but now found even there rarely, except in names of places: Auch der Alzeller soll uns nid dem Wald (*below the Forest*, a section of the canton Unterwalden) | Genossen werden (Schiller's *Tell*, 1, 4).

ob above, over, during, on account of, usually with the dative, often also with gen. in the last meaning after the analogy of wegen, in all the meanings now little used in colloquial language, but not infrequent in early N.H.G., and still in poetry and choice prose: Ob (above) dem Altar hing eine Mutter Gottes (Schiller). Denn reiche Zukunft schwebt ob deinem Haupt (Uhland's *Ernst, Herzog von Schwaben*, I, p. 1). Ich will dich mir so lachend, strahlend wissen, | so himmelhoch ob jedem schwarzen Müssen (Sudermann's *Die drei Reierfedern*, 3, 10). Österreich ob der Enns. Und namen ire waffen | und fielen ein zu Simon ob (during) dem Mahl (1 Macc. xvi. 16). Zürnen Sie mir nicht ob meinem fühnen Geständnis (Benedix's *Doktor Wespe*, 5, 7). Dabei erhoben sie sich und standen verwirrt, schwankend ob all dem Abenteuerlichen, das der Abend enthüllt und gebracht hatte (Raabe's *Zum wilden Mann*, chap. ix).

With gen.: Ihr seid | verwundert ob des seltsamen Gerätes (Schiller's *Jungfrau*, Prolog. 3). Er hätte ihn ob seines Idealismus weiblich ausgescholten (Auerbach's *Neues Leben*, 3, 42). Selbst verwundert ob des Tonfalls (Raabe's *Höxter und Corvey*, chap. xv). Verfeinert ob solchen nie dagewesenen regellosen Einbruchs (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. xx). Felix lachte ob meiner Sorgen (Meinhardt's *Heinz Kirchner*).

samt, see (a) under nebst.

seit since, for, representing the duration of some act or condition of things beginning at some point in the past and extending to some point later on: Wir leben schon seit 7 Jahren in Berlin We have been living in Berlin now for seven years. Seit (since) seiner letzten Krankheit hört er schwer.

(a) Synonymous with seit are vor and nach. The two latter differ from seit in that they do not express duration of time, but refer to a definite occurrence. Vor refers to a definite occurrence counting back from the present, while nach refers to something that took place *after* some other event or some fixed time: Er ist vor einem Jahr gestorben He died a year since. Er ist am Tage nach Ostern gestorben He died on the day after Easter. Er ist seit einem Jahre tot (not gestorben) He has been dead for a year.

von (for synonyms aus and vor, see f, under aus) denotes in various ways the *starting point*, used of:—

(a) Place (the opposite of nach and zu), *from*: Er ist von Paris nach Berlin gereist. Der Apfel ist vom Baume gefallen. Er geht von Haus zu Haus. Figuratively: Er wälzt die Schuld von sich. Ich muß mir erst meine Gegner vom Halse schaffen I must first get rid of my opponents.

(b) The starting point of some action or state of things, and hence often denoting the direct cause, *from, with, on account of, on, by*, and after passive verbs the agent, *by*: Von Worten kam's zu Schlägen. Das kommt vom Eizen her That comes from sitting too much. Er ist müde vom (from) vielen Laufen. Naß vom (with) Tau. Er ist von (with) Rheumatismus gelähmt. Die Hand ist von (with) Frost erstarrt. Die Wasser sind von (on account of) dem Regen ausgetreten. Von (on) der Luft kann man nicht leben. Der Leichnam war von (by) Wunden entstellt. Der Schüler wird vom (by) Lehrer gelobt. Der Baum wurde vom (by) Winde umgerissen.

(c) The starting point of thought or perceptions, denoting the point or especial topic that busies the attention, *of, about, concerning*: Er denkt schlecht von (of) mir. Dies Buch handelt von (of) dem siebenjährigen Kriege. Berichte mir

von dir. Wir sprachen, redeten von (about) Ihnen. Er weiß von (concerning) der Sache nichts. Er erzählt oft von seinen Reisen. Über with the acc. is also used with these verbs, presenting the same thought from a different point of view; see 231. II. über 2. B. b. This same meaning is found after nouns: die Lehre von der Dreieinigkeit, das Märchen von Notkäppchen, eine falsche Vorstellung von etwas.

(d) Origin of things, descent, place of nativity or residence, *from, by*: Ich habe es von ihm. Ich weiß es von guter Hand. Von ihm hat er allerlei Schlechtes gelernt. Er stammt von rechtlichen Eltern ab. Drei Kinder von (by) seiner ersten Frau. Ein Kaufmann von Berlin. Thus also von, which serves now simply as the badge of nobility, originally denoted the place from which: Alexander von Humboldt; see 92. 5.

Note. Von differs from aus in that it expresses a directer, more intimate relation: Ich höre von ihm, daß Karl krank ist. Ich hörte aus seiner Art zu reden sehr wohl, daß er ein edelmütiges Herz hatte. Er kommt aus Preußen, but von Berlin. For a difference from another point of view, see aus, f.

(e) Time, *from*: von Ostern bis Pfingsten, von Tag zu Tag, von Jugend auf, von diesem Tage an.

(f) Material or that of which something consists, instead of the gen., which is now rare in prose, *of* (see *Note* under aus, c): Der Tisch ist von Holz, ein Strahl von Glück, ein unverständliches Gemisch von Spanisch und Italienisch. Although von is used chiefly in a phrase which serves as an adjunct to a noun, it is also sometimes employed in adverbial phrases instead of the more common aus: Man macht Papier aus or von Lumpen.

Similar is the use of von in phrases indicating the quantity or measure: eine Stadt von 20,000 Einwohnern, ein Betrag von 100 Mark, ein Weg von drei Meilen.

(g) Quality or rank, instead of a gen. of characteristic, which is in certain expressions now rare, *of*: Ein Mann von Ehre, von Stande, von Geschmack; eine Sache von Wichtigkeit; ein Greis von achtzig Jahren. In the predicate: Das ist von großem Nutzen.

(h) A particular point or respect in which something is true, sometimes after adjectives and before a following noun, thus forming a phrase which is translated by a phrase, an adj., or in various other ways: Er ist klein von Person (of stature). Ich kenne ihn von Ansehen or Person (by sight). Sie ist bleich von Gesicht (pale-faced).

(i) In a phrase which stands as an appositive to a preceding noun, just as *of* in Eng.: Schurke von einem Wirt rascal of a landlord. Das ist eine Pracht von einem Becher That is a jewel of a cup.

(j) A separation, desired or forced, which comes from the original idea of movement from a point: Er hat mich von Kummer befreit. Die Blätter fallen vom Baume ab. Geben Sie mir etwas vom Fleisch.

Hence also the whole, from which a part is taken, has often von before it, instead of being in the partitive gen., especially after numerals, pronouns (see 141. 2. *Note*), and superlatives: Zwei von meinen Freunden, keiner von uns, der Gelehrtste von allen. Euphony sometimes alone decides between the use of the gen. or the dat. with von: Sie hörte es von einer ihrer Freundinnen is to be preferred to Sie hörte es von einer von ihren Freundinnen because it avoids the use of von twice. Sometimes the prep. unter is also used here: Der stärkste unter allen Tapfern. See also 255. II. 1. H. a and c.

Also the objective gen. is often replaced by von; see 255. II. 1. D. c.

(k) Besides the cases mentioned in f, g, and j, above, which now usually prefer von with the dat. to the simple gen., the following cases also very frequently prefer von to a gen.:—

(1) The names of places, always in common prose when they end in a sibilant: Der König Preußens or von Preußen, but only die Bevölkerung von Paris. The gen., however, occurs here in poetry; see 86. 2. e.

(2) Nouns without an article or modifying word to show the case: Er ist der Verfasser von Gedichten, ein Geräusch von Wasser, Blätter von Blumen.

(3) To denote authorship rather than ownership: Ein Bildnis von Raphael a portrait by Raphael, but ein Bildnis Raphaels a portrait that belongs to Raphael or one that represents him. Ein Buch von (composed by) meinem Freund, but ein Buch meines (belonging to my) Freundes.

(4) With numerals which have no declension, as also with those which may be inflected: die Gefangennahme von 83,000 Mann, die Aussage zweier or von zwei Zeugen.

(5) To avoid the recurrence of too many genitives: Der Genuß der Frucht vom Baume der Erkenntnis des Guten und Bösen.

(6) The gen. must be replaced by von with the dat. when the dependent word is to be separated from its governing noun, which is especially the case when it is placed at the head of the sentence for emphasis: Von seinen Freunden hielten ihn einige für schuldig, andere für unschuldig.

(7) With the idea of mastery and in a number of other set phrases: Die Frau vom Haus. Gustav Adolf machte sich Meister vom Rhein. Ein Freund vom Hause, der leibliche Bruder von ihm, ein Freund von mir, or einer meiner Freunde. Das war ein Fehler von ihm That was a fault of his. Das ist das Ende vom Lied That is the upshot of it all, &c.

(8) The use of von instead of the gen. is among the common people and in familiar conversation widespread and, to the horror of the grammarian, spreading. Hence there is often a shade of difference between the simple gen. and the dat. with von, the former being more choice, the latter more peculiar to the language of loose conversation or the dialect of the common people: Der Vater von diesem Kinde instead of dieses Kindes, &c.

(9) Von is used in a number of idiomatic expressions difficult to classify: Es war sehr unhöflich von ihm It was very impolite in him. Es war nicht recht von ihm (zu) It was not right of him (to). Es ist ein Verbrechen von mir (on my part), schon allein, daß du hier bist (Hauptmann's *Friedensfest*, 1). Er lebt von der Hand in den Mund He lives from hand to mouth. Die Straßen wimmeln von Menschen, or Es wimmelt von Menschen auf den Straßen The streets swarm with people.

vorgängig prior to: Vergängig dem Kongresse deutscher Gas- und Wasserfachmänner hielt heute nachmittag der Schweizerische Verein von Gas- und Wasserfachmännern in der Aula des Hirschengraben-Schulhauses seine 30. Jahresversammlung ab (*Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, 23. Juni 1903).

zu. I. It is used of motion, direction, rest, and time, but these varied meanings lie rather in the verb or dependent noun than in the prep., which in all these meanings expresses a close approach and intimate relation which is often difficult to render fully into English, but which is usually translated by *to*, *at*, *in*, *on*, *by*, *for*, *with*, &c.

Note. Synonymous with **zu** are **an** and **nach**. **Nach** expresses a general direction toward or a destination in a broad, general sense, as a city, state, or other place, while **an** and **zu** express a more specific or definite goal, as a person or object, but in the case of **zu** also a broader goal where a specific purpose is evident: Er geht nach der Stadt zu seinem Bruder. Ich poche an die Tür. Ich schreibe an (to) meinen Freund. Man fährt Steine zur (for building purposes, *to the*) Stadt, but nach Berlin, **zu** not being used at all before names of cities with verbs of motion. Both **an** and **zu** denote a near approach, but the latter expresses a much closer and more intimate relation between the objects and persons brought together. Ich schrieb an (to) ihn, but Ich sprach zu ihm. Er trat an das Bett He went up to the bed, but Er ging zu Bett He went to bed (to sleep). It is difficult to draw a line between the uses of **an** and **zu**, and in cases they blend together, but in general the difference is marked between them as above indicated. With **zu** the idea of a definite place or goal is often entirely lost sight of and in its stead arise the associations that cluster around the place, the efforts that were necessary to reach it, the ends and aims there to be realized, and often the prep. and noun lose their several individual functions and become together the complement of the verb after the manner of a separable prefix, thus taking on general or abstract meaning instead of a concrete local one (see Note under 245. IV. 3. B): Die Kinder

gehn zur Schule, zu Tische, zur Kirche (not with any definite reference to a particular school, table, church, but with the general idea of *to learn, to eat, to devotional services*). Er ist zu Gelde, zu Ehren gekommen He has attained wealth, honor. Viel Unglück ist ihm zu teil (here equal to a verbal prefix) geworden Much misfortune has been allotted to him. Mit vieler Mühe brachten sie endlich ein Feuer zuwege With much trouble they finally started a fire, lit. brought it on the road.

II. The varied meanings of *zu* may be arranged into the following groups:—

1. The *local* meanings fall into the general heads of *motion or direction toward a goal or destination* (with the idea of near approach) and *rest in a place*.

A. *Direction toward* (see I. Note, above) in its literal sense, of persons and things: Ich will Sie zu ihm führen. Man gelangte über Felsen zur letzten Höhe. Viel Getreide wird zur Stadt geführt. Er hat die Feder zu den übrigen gelegt He has put away the pen with the others. Er steckte es zu sich (in his pocket). Er nimmt niemals irgendwelche Speise zwischen den Mahlzeiten zu sich (into his mouth). Er führte seine Braut zum Altare. Die Straße zur Stadt, die Türe zum Keller.

Note. The adverb *zu* has much the same force as the prep.: Das Schiff segelt dem Hafen zu. From its employment in such adverbial relations, where it stands after the dat., it has developed into a preposition governing the dat. and following the noun with the meanings *in the direction of, looking towards, facing*: Zwei Türen hat der Kuriaal zu Gannstatt, einander gegenüber an den Langseiten des Gebäudes gelegen, die eine westlich (on the west side) der Stadt (dat. depending upon *zu*) und dem Riekar, die andere östlich der Sauerlingsquelle und dem Sulzrain zu (Raabe's *Pechlin*, II, chap. xi).

B. *Direction toward* in a number of applied relations:

a. *Toward* in an abstract or figurative sense: Er bringt seine Gedanken zu Papier He writes down his thoughts. Er nahm es zu Herzen. Er kommt zu Fall. Es kommt mir zu Ohren. Er geht zu Grunde (ruin). Ein fallender Apfel führte den großen Newton zur Entdeckung eines der wichtigsten Naturgesetze. Solche Erfahrung führt zum Menschenhaß. Das Volk griff zu den Waffen The people took up arms.

Especially in the sense of attaining a goal or end: Er kommt zu Ansehen, Vermögen. Der Plan gelangte nicht zur Ausführung. Er gelangte zu Amt und Würden. Er kommt zu Kräften (gathers new strength). Er brachte es zu Ende, *zu* stande.

b. *Attitude toward or close relation or association*: Er schwieg zu der ganzen Sache He assumed an attitude of silence with regard to the whole affair. Er lachte dazu. Was sagen Sie dazu? Er hält zu unsrer Partei (sides with our party). Warum machen Sie da so 'ne Bude auf, wenn Sie so unhöflich sind zu den Gästen? (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act 3). War er doch ein weilsäufiger Better zu [colloq. and pop.; in the literary language more commonly von] ihr (Rosegger's *Die Stadt im Walde*). Der Stillhänder ist ja ein Better zu mir (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, II). Was essen Sie zu (with) Ihrem Ochsenfleisch? Die Insel gehört zu (not possession, but with the idea of forming an integral part of) England. Zu einem großen Manne gehört beides: Kleinigkeiten als Kleinigkeiten und wichtige Dinge als wichtige Dinge zu behandeln. Sein Benehmen paßt nicht zu seinen Verhältnissen. Sie sang schöne Weisen zu (accompanied by) meiner Flöte.

c. *Proportion*: Der Montblanc verhält sich zu dem Brocken (Mont Blanc has the same relation to the Brocken) wie ein Riese zu einem Zwerge.

d. *A fixed price, amount in money or weight, rate of interest, or in general any fixed measurement*: ein Brot zu 60 Pfennigen a loaf costing 60 pfennigs. Das Haus samt dem dazu gehörigen Stallgebäude und Garten ist zu (at) 20,000 Mark abgeköhgt. Zum Selbstkostenpreis at cost; 80 Ballen Twist (cotton twist), zu Netto (with a net weight of) 1000 Pfund jeder; die jährlichen Zinsen von 7500 M. (Mark) zu (at) 4½%; 1 Kiepe (measurement used in the dried fish trade) = 4 Stiegen, die Stiege zu 20 Stück, 1 kiepe = 4 stieges, each stiege containing 20 pieces. Das Deutsche Reich, Skandinavien, Rußland, die Schweiz rechnen jeden Monat zu 30 Tagen, das Jahr zu 360 Tagen.

Note. This German preposition is often in commercial language replaced by the French prep. *à*: Wie viel betragen die Zinsen von M. (Mark) 753,80 à 6% in 155 Tagen?

e. The direction of an activity, inclination, growth, thought, or feeling toward an object or end, especially frequent before an infin.: Er spricht zu mir. Der Vater hält das Kind zur Schule, zur Arbeit, zum Fleiß, zum Gebet an. Themistokles wollte Athen (Athens) zu einer unbezwinglichen Seefeste machen. Man nimmt zu (to make) diesem Gebäck auf (to) ein Pfund des feinsten Weizenmehls ein halbes Pfund der besten Butter. Er hat Lust, Neigung, Liebe zu der Sache. Mir ist nicht zum Lachen I don't feel in a laughing mood. Wir alle haben einen Hang zur Sünde. Und sie ist immer so gut zu mir gewesen (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 238). Freundlich bin ich zu ihr gewesen (Fulda's *Die Sklavin*, 3, 3). Der Knabe wird zum Jüngling. Es wird ihm zur Gewohnheit. Ich hoffe zu siegen. Ich bin bereit zu sterben. Ich bin begierig zu wissen. Here belongs the common meaning *an essay or paper upon the subject of*, lit. directed toward, especially in titles of articles in periodicals: Zur neuesten Wallenstein-Literatur (Something upon the subject of) The Latest Literature on Wallenstein. Zur Agypt- und Lautlehre der Germanischen Sprachen.

f. The direction toward in the sense of *purpose or intention*, or that for which something is most suitable or serviceable, or to which it is best adapted, or for which it has been set aside: Es geschieht zu deinem Besten. Er reist zur (for the purpose of) Erholung, zum Vergnügen, zur Ausbildung. Er kommt mich zu warnen. Steinkohlen dienen zum Brennen. Wozu nützt so etwas? Es nützt zu nichts. Sie sind der Mann zu (for) diesem Werk. Wasser zum Trinken, ein Gefäß zu (for holding) Milch, Tuch zu einem Kleid. Ich stehe Ihnen zu Diensten I am at your service. Ich stehe (Ihnen) zu Befehl I am at your command. Zu Befehl, Herr Hauptmann! Right (or yes), sir!

g. The point which an activity or quality has reached, or is expected to reach, hence in general expressing the extent, or force, or the result, or effect of the quality or action contained or implied in the predicate: Es ist zum Nasendwerden It is enough to drive one mad. Sie ist schön zum Entzücken She is so beautiful that one is charmed. Brav ist er und gut mit den Kindern nicht zum Glauben He is good and kind to the children to such an extent that one can scarcely believe it. Er spielte seine Rolle zu allgemeiner Zufriedenheit. Es gereicht ihm zur Ehre. Ich habe ihn zum Freunde. Er hat sie jetzt zur Frau. Sie krönten ihn zum Kaiser. Der Onkel hat ihn zum Erben eingesetzt. Wir wählten ihn zum Verräther. Es kam zu einer Prügelei. Der Schnee wurde zu Wasser. Er fiel mir zur Last He became a burden to me. Der Knabe wuchs zum Jüngling heran. Der Richter verurteilte ihn zum Schadenersatz, zu Gefängnis, zum Tode. Zur Not when it comes to a case of necessity, zur höchsten Not, zum Teil in part, zur Hälfte half (as in Sie kennen mich zur Hälfte nur).

h. Addition: Tun Sie Zucker zum Kaffee Add sugar to your coffee. Sie gießt Milch zum Kaffee. Dazu' or zudem' besides, moreover.

C. Rest or motion in or at a place, and thus synonymous with *an*, *bei*, *in* (see each word), but differing from them in general in that it denotes a closer relation between the object and the place: Der Dom zu (in, not temporarily, but permanently) Köln (Cologne), die Universität zu Berlin. Er sitzt zu (for the purpose of eating) Tische. Die Tür steht zur rechten, linken Hand. Before names of places there is often no difference at all between *in* and *zu*, except that the former is more used colloquially, and the latter belongs to higher diction. If, however, a modifying word stands between the preposition and the name of the place, *in* not *zu* must be used: *in* or *zu* Rom, but *in* dem alten Rom.

Especially frequent of a place through which something goes in or out: Da kamen zum Fenster zwei Täubchen herein. Dann gehen sie zum Tore hinaus. Er wirft sein Geld zum Fenster hinaus (squanders his money). It is also used in a number of applied relations:

a. Noteworthy is the use of *zu* on the signboards of hotels and drug stores, like the English "At the Red Lion": Gasthof zum weißen Roß. Ap. (Apotheke) zum Löwen, zum Pelikan (also Löwen-*Ap.*, Pelikan-*Ap.*).

b. Distributively and collectively: Sie kommen *zu* (also bei and in) Paaren. Nun ging der Zug *zu* fünfen (in groups of five) zum Dorf hinaus. Nun saßen sie *zu* dreien (three in all) um dasselbe Tischchen. Wir sind nur *zu* vier (or viere) There are only four of us.

c. Manner or condition in a few set expressions, *by, on*: Er reist *zu* Fuß, *zu* Pferde, *zu* Wagen, *zu* Schiff, *zu* Lande, *zu* Wasser. Begleitscheine (giving weight, value, &c.) müssen solchen Warenballen beigegeben werden, die *zu* Post oder *pr.* (per) Fracht über eine Zollgrenze gehen. Etwas besteht *zu* Recht (has legal force). Mir ist wohl *zu* Mut I feel well, cheerful.

2. In a temporal sense, *in, at, for*: *zu* Anfang, *zu* Ende des Jahres, *zu* (at) jeder Stunde, *zu* (in) meiner Zeit, *zur* (at) rechten Zeit. Er kommt *zu* Ostern, Weihnachten. Er ist *zu* Mittag, *zu* Abend bei uns. Von Tag *zu* Tag, von Stunde *zu* Stunde, *zum* (for) ersten, letzten Male, zuerst first, zuletzt last. Willst du wenigstens meine Aufgaben *zu* (for) morgen machen: den Aufsatß und die dummen Crempel? (Spielhagen's *Sonntagskind*, I, 2).

zufolge in accordance with, according to, in consequence of; see gemäß and also nach, e. (2), *Note*, above, and in 228. 4 the words gemäß, infolge, laut, (a). It usually governs the gen. when it stands before the noun, and the dat. when it follows the noun (the favorite position).

zunächst, see nächst.

zusamt', zusamt mit, see nebst, (a).

zuwider *contrary to, against, averse to*, always following the dependent word. Like entgegen, it is not only a pure prep., but also an adverb, serving as a separable prefix of a verb though not usually written with it as one word; hence it has the position of a separable prefix in the sentence, except where it is a pure prep., in which case it always follows the noun: Der Konstitution *zuwider* (prep.) führte er fremde Truppen in ihr Gebiet. Am Kap der guten Hoffnung ist den Schiffen der Wind nicht selten *zuwider* (adverb). *Zu* viel Süßigkeiten sind mir *zuwider* (adverb). Das läuft dem Gesetz *zuwider* (adverb).

(a) The synonym of *zuwider* is entgegen. As prepositions they both have the same force, that of *contrary to*, with the exception that *zuwider* is perhaps the stronger word. As adverbs they both still govern the dat. with the same force they have as prepositions, but *zuwider* has not so broad a field of usefulness here as entgegen. The former can only be used figuratively with the opposite force of nach, gemäß, and *zufolge according to*, hence with the meanings *contrary to the nature, commands, or instructions of*, also in general with the idea of opposition, or hostility, *opposed, hostile to*: Er hat dem Befehle entgegen or *zuwider* gehandelt. Die Arznei ist mir *zuwider* (contrary to my nature, hence disagreeable to). Das Glück war uns entgegen or *zuwider*. Dem steht nichts entgegen or *zuwider* There is no obstacle in the way of it. Der Wind war ihnen entgegen or *zuwider*. Entgegen has also, as can be seen from the preceding examples, a force opposite to that of nach or *zufolge*, hence with the meanings of *contrary to the instructions, commands of, opposed to, hostile to*, but also, in addition to these meanings which it has in common with *zuwider*, it is used literally with verbs of motion in the sense of a friendly or hostile movement towards: Er kam uns entgegen He came to meet us. Österreich scheint seinem Zerfalle entgegen *zu* gehen (to be approaching). Die Armee geht dem Feinde mutig entgegen (against).

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE ACCUSATIVE.

230. The following are the prepositions with the acc., with their leading meanings, the preps. standing in alphabetical order.

bis denotes in general a limit or boundary, used of time and place, before nouns and adverbs, and often prepositional phrases, *till, until, by, as far as, to, up to, except*: Er bleibt bis (until) Weihnachten, bis Montag, bis morgen, bis zehn Uhr, bis mit (or bis und mit) den 1. (read ersten) Oktober up to October the first inclusive, bis nächste Woche. Er bleibt zwei bis drei Tage He will remain from two to three days. Bis wie lange bleiben Sie? Bis (by) Mittag bin ich wieder da. Sie kamen bis (as far as) Berlin. Wir reisten zusammen bis Italien, and likewise before the name of any place, but not usually before the names of objects. There is a tendency, however, to extend this construction, and hence in short fragmentary utterances bis is sometimes found before names of objects: (Conductor of a street-car) Wie weit? (Passenger) Bis Kirche. Before prep. phrases: Er hat alles bezahlt bis auf (except) einige Kleinigkeiten. Er hat alles bis auf (up to, here inclusive of) den letzten Heller bezahlt. Es währte bis gegen (until in the neighborhood of) Abend. Bis vor (until just before) Ostern währte die Kälte. Sie wachten bis nach Mitternacht.

Bis is also used as a conjunction without influence over the case of the following word, to connect individual words or different propositions: ausgewählte Lerte des 4. (read vierten) bis 15. (also gen.: read fünfzehnten) Jahrhunderts. Ich blieb im Bett, bis er aufgestanden war.

durch and its strengthened form **hindurch** (always after the noun).

(a) Extension or penetration from one point of time or space to another, *through, throughout*: Der Vogel fliegt durch die Luft. Er geht durchs Zimmer. Das schnitt mir durchs Herz. Wir fuhr ein Gedanke durch den Kopf. Gott hat seine Kirche durch alle Jahrhunderte erhalten. Viele wohnen den ganzen Sommer hindurch auf dem Lande.

Note. Noteworthy is the common use of **durch** as an adverb when it has the position of a separable or inseparable prefix. It has the same general force as the prep. **durch**, but as it modifies directly the verb, the idea of *through* gives the verb sometimes intensive force, which cannot lie in the prep. itself: Er geht durch den Garten He goes through the garden, in one direction. Er geht den Garten durch (goes over the garden thoroughly in all directions). For further light upon the use of **durch** as a verbal prefix, study carefully the different articles under 215. II. 3.

(b) Means which one employs to reach an end, either of things or persons: Die Niederländer schützten sich durch Dämme gegen den Ozean. Ich habe mich durch eitele List verleiten lassen. Durch ihn habe ich meinen Zweck erreicht. Dividiere diese Zahl durch (by) jene.

Note. For its synonyms, see in 228. 4 the prep. **mittels** (a).

(c) Cause, of persons or things: Durch ihn bin ich glücklich geworden He is the author of all my happiness. Durch angestrengte Arbeit ist er krank geworden. Lissabon wurde im 18ten Jahrhundert durch ein Erdbeben zerstört. Er ist durch (by) seinen Feind verdrängt worden. Sie ist elend durch (caused by, not necessarily intended by) mich.

Note. This use of **durch** approaches very close to **von** (see 228. 4, **mittels** (a), and 229. 2, **von** (b)), but they differ in this that the latter emphasizes more the starting place or the thinking agent, working to a definite end, while the former makes more prominent the manner or means.

(d) In the sense *all mixed up*, especially in the compound **durcheinander**: Er spricht deutsch und englisch, bunt **durcheinander**. Er erzählte, was er nur wusste, bunt **durcheinander** wie Kraut und Rüben.

entlang, see **längs** in 229. 2.

exklusiv, see **ausschließlich** in 228. 4.

für (in early N.H.G., especially with Luther, often **für**) in all its varied meanings corresponds almost exactly to the Eng. *for*, and will not need detailed treatment.

(a) As could only be expected the German deviates from the Eng. in a number of expressions :

(1) Für is used with the verbs achten to consider, look at, erkennen pronounce, make known, halten regard, erklären pronounce, finden consider : Er achtet das für (as) nichts. Sie erkannten (recognized) die von dem Finanzminister abgelegte Rechnung als (as) falsch, aber aus Mangel an Mut erkannten (pronounced) sie dieselbe trotzdem für richtig. Ich halte ihn für einen ehrlichen Menschen. Er erklärte das für eine Lüge. Er fand es für notwendig.

(2) In case of diseases and poisons the German uses für, or perhaps more appropriately gegen or wider, where we use for : ein Mittel für, or gegen, or wider Kopfschmerzen (das Fieber, &c.) a remedy for headache (fever, &c.). Dieses Gift ist gut für (for the destruction of) Mäuse. This construction is a survival of older usage where für had the force of gegen. This older meaning still occurs occasionally elsewhere : Durchweg waren das minder kräftige Leute, dürstige, blasse Burschen mit fahlen Gesichtern, die er für den Tod (to save his very life) nicht aushalten konnte (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan*?, II).

(3) In naming a price, the German uses für, where in Eng. for is used, but he goes farther, and uses it for amount, price in general : Er kaufte es für 10 Mark. Für 25 Pfennig Schokolade 25 pfennigs' worth of chocolate, für 6 Mark Übergewicht overweight on a trunk to the amount of 6 marks. Für zehn Mark Geschirr hat sie [sic] fallen lassen (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, I).

(4) In a few idiomatic expressions, English for is rendered by other means : Es ist jetzt kein Schiff nach (for) Boston in Bremen. Ich habe einen Brief nach (for) Berlin auf die Post gegeben. Er ist auf (for) acht Tage verreist. Viele Deutsche geben ihre Verachtung der (for the) Juden immer zu erkennen. Sie hätte einen unangenehmen Eindruck gemacht diese Nase, wenn die Augen nicht gewesen wären if it had not been for her eyes. Sie war berühmt gewesen wegen ihres Teints (for her complexion ; Ossip Schubin has here für ihren Teint). Zum (for) Frühstück erhält jeder von euch zwei trockene Wecken.

(5) In a few expressions für is rendered differently in English : Diese Tür ist für (to) dich geschlossen. Er dient für (instead of) seinem Bruder. Es ist sehr hart für (upon) ehrliche Leute, daß usw. Er stand ganz allein für sich He stood all by himself. Für sich (stage direction) aside. Er ist blind für (to) seine Fehler. Sie meinen also, für gewöhnlich (as a rule, as a usual thing), lüge ich? (Spielhagen's *Sonntagskind*, II, 5). Er ist wenig, aber er trinkt dafür (to make up for it) viel.

(b) Originally the nearly related words für and vor were more closely related. Both were used of time or space, the former with the acc. to express motion toward, and the latter with the dat. to denote rest. Early in the present period these relations became confused, as in N.G. and M.G. the two forms had merged into one, namely vor. This state of things can still be seen in the dialect of these sections. In the literary language of early N.H.G. vor had already assumed in large measure the meaning of für besides its own original meaning, and consequently governed the dat. or acc. according to the sense. On the other hand, as the result of this confusion für sometimes assumed the meaning of vor, and hence we find it with either the dat. (as in *Bäume . . . , die sich für der Last der Früchte zur Erde beugen* — Goethe an *Frau von Stein*, 3, 178 — instead of vor der Last, &c.) or acc. according to the sense. These fluctuations still occur not infrequently in the eighteenth century, and even to-day in a few words, as fürlich or verlieb, vornehm, or more rarely fürnehm. Gradually, however, vor replaced für also in the literary language, except in many derivative or figurative applications where für is still used, now always with the acc. Only in a few set expressions can its former literal meaning be seen : Schritt für Schritt (also Schritt vor Schritt) step by step, lit. one step before the other, Punkt für Punkt, &c. Occasionally in the classics für can be found in its original meaning, where present usage requires vor : Ich ging im Walde | so für mich hin (Goethe's *Gefunden*).

gegen and **wider**, both with the idea of direction or movement towards, the former in the sense of friendliness, hostility, or resistance, the latter only

in the sense of hostility or resistance, used of time or space, literally or figuratively, *toward, to, about*.

(a) In the sense of a general direction toward or a position facing toward: Wir ritten gegen den Rhein. Gegen Ende August about the end of August. Er wird gegen (about) drei Uhr zurückkommen. Das Haus liegt gegen Morgen (to the east). Es ist schwer gegen or wider den Strom zu schwimmen. Die beiden Häre kämpfen gegen or wider einander. Man hält mich hier gefangen wider alles Völkerrecht.

Note. In a few set expressions, especially in the Bible and poetry, before nouns without an article the shortened form *gen* is found instead of *gegen*: *gen Himmel*, *gen Osten*, *gen Westen*, *gen Rom*.

(b) The direction of thought or feeling toward, in a friendly sense, after *gegen* (here often closely related to its synonyms *zu* and *für*), or in a hostile sense, or one of opposition, after *gegen* or *wider*: Er erweist sich gefällig gegen Freunde. Seine Liebe gegen seine Geschwister, die Pflichten gegen Gott, seine Zuneigung gegen (also für) ihn, die Liebe gegen Gott (or zu) Gott, Ehrfurcht gegen das Alter, Ekel gegen das Leben, but usually *zu* or *für* with things: seine übermäßige Liebe zum Brantwein, zum Vaterland, zum Spiel, zum Gewinn, Gefühl für das Schöne, Sinn für Ehre. Er hat einen Haß gegen or wider mich gefaßt. Was hast du gegen or wider mich? Das geschah gegen or wider alle Erwartung. Das geht ihm wider die Natur. Er tut es wider Willen.

(c) Approach toward for the purpose of comparison, *in comparison with*, synonymous with *im Vergleich mit*, *im Verhältnis zu*: Reichtum ist nichts gegen Gesundheit. Alle Bücher sind nichts gegen die Bibel. Gegen früher in comparison with a previous period. Ich wette hundert gegen (to) eins.

(d) Attitude towards, synonymous with *gegenüber* (see this, a), sometimes, however, indicating a more positive attitude, *in the face of, to, in the presence of*: Alles . . . war darüber einverstanden, daß das Gemeinwesen in diesem Falle eine Pflicht zu erfüllen habe und daß es derselben gegen jede, wenn auch so respectable Privatgegenmeinung nachkommen müsse (Raabe's *Villa Schönau*, v). Kaiser und Reich regten sich nicht gegen diesen unermesslichen Verlust. Die Regierung war gegen das entseßtelemente Element ohnmächtig. Er ließ sich gegen ihn nichts merken He pretended to him that he did not notice it. Gegen (in the presence of) andere rühmt er sich seiner Taten.

(e) *In exchange for, for*, closely related to *für* and *um*: Kriegsgefangene werden gegen einander ausgetauscht. Man tauscht ein Ding gegen (or für, sometimes um) ein anderes. Sie können Ihr Geld gegen Quittung (on receipt) bekommen. Man pflegt Geld nur gegen einen Schuldschein zu leihen. Er gibt diese Ware nur gegen bare Bezahlung.

(f) In estimates, an approximate judgment as to weight, magnitude, cost, and the like, used as a prep. or as an adverb (see 225. i. c, and for synonyms, see in 229. 2 the prep. *bei*, i. h. *Note*), *about*: Die Stadt hat gegen dreißigtausend Einwohner.

(g) *Gegen*, now exclusively with the acc., was up to the seventeenth century found usually with the dat., and occasionally even so in the works of Goethe and Lessing: und eure Garben umher neigten sich gegen meiner Garben (Genesis xxxvii. 7). Ihr werdet gegen der Menge wenig sein (Goethe's *Götz*, 3, 4, Hirzel-Bernays, 2, 309). Also in the later form of *Götz*: Sie kommen über die Heide, ich will gegen ihnen halten (3, 11).

(h) In Austrian and Bavarian dialects the *gen.* is found after *gegen*, especially with pronouns: *Stemm' dich an gegen meiner, was [du] fannst* (Ganghofer's *Der Dorfapostel*, II).

General Note. *Wider* is only used in a. and b. of the above articles.

gen, see *gegen*, a, *Note*.

hindurch, see *durch*, above.

inklusi've, see *anschließlich* in 228. 4.

lang, see under *längs* in 229. 2.

ohne (a) is the opposite of *mit*, and hence denotes lack, *without*, *but for*: So lange ich meinen Freund zärtlich liebte, ging ich nicht ohne ihn. Er ist ohne Freude. Es gibt keine Freundschaft ohne gegenseitige Achtung. Ich kann die Suppe nicht ohne einen Löffel essen. Ohne ihn wären wir gestorben. But for him we should have died. Notice the idiomatic omission of the object in the following: Wie jammert mich Vater's Bärtchen; ich kenne ihn gar nicht mehr ohne (Bismarck to his wife, Oct. 7, 1850). Regularly so in colloquial speech when the object belongs to two prepositions which govern different cases: Wie würde es dir besser munden: mit einer Rahmsauce oder ohne? (Meinhardt's *Allerleirauh*, p. 236). In more formal language we find *mit einer Rahmsauce* oder *ohne dieselbe*.

(b) In an earlier period in the sense of *except*, *not counting*, *besides*, and still found in certain expressions: Es waren zwanzig Personen da ohne die Kinder. Especially in the adverbial expressions: *ohne das*, *ohne dies*, *ohne hin* *besides*.

(c) In early N.H.G. *ohne* governed the *dat.*, as can still be seen in the one word *ohne dem* (= *ohne das*; see *b*, above), which is still sometimes used: Ohne dem aber war für ihn nicht mehr an einen Verkehr in Grafenwang zu denken (Perfall's *Der schöne Wahn*, p. 86). The *dat.* still lingers in the classical period: Bald mit, bald ohne dem Mitleid (Lessing). In Austria it appears with the *gen.*; see *d*, towards end.

(d) After the verbs *sein* and *werden* in an earlier period, *ohne* governed a *gen.* which usually preceded it, in the sense of *void of*, *free from*, and is still commonly thus used in the word *zweifelsohne* *doubtless* and quite a number of expressions in familiar language where the *gen.* is always understood: Es ist nicht ganz (des Grundes) ohne It (the report) is not entirely void of foundation. Die Sache ist nicht ganz (der Wahrscheinlichkeit) ohne. Sie ist schmutz, aber die anderen sind auch nicht ganz (der Schönheit) ohne. In Austrian and Bavarian dialects *ohne* with the *gen.* is also used with other verbs, usually, however, preceding the dependent noun, or more commonly pronoun, like a preposition with the meaning *without*: Ich kann ohne Ihrer (perhaps a *dat.*, which is also used here) Tochter nicht leben (Raimund's *Alpenkönig*, 3, 16). Sie würden auch ohne seiner das Essen fertig bringen (Anzengruber's *Schandfleck*, chap. xx). Die Mutter Sanna wollte ohne seiner nicht weiter gehen (Rosegger).

per is a Latin prep. much used in commercial language, both in foreign expressions, as *per diem*, and with many German words, especially those without an article or other inflected word, but it is also sometimes employed before words which can show inflection. It is found in certain set expressions, denoting:

(a) Means, *by*, *per*, *in*: Ich schicke es *per* (or *durch die* or *mit der*) Post, *per* Fracht. Es geht billiger *per* Schiff als *per* Bahn (or *Eisenbahn*). Heutzutage geht alles *per* Dampf (= *Geschwindigkeit*). Ich meldete es ihm *per* Telegraph. *Per* Maria *per* steamship Maria, *per* ersten Segler by the first sailing vessel. Er zahlt *per* Kassa (in cash). Ein Brief *per* Adresse (in care) des Herrn Karl Schmidt.

(b) Distributively, *per*, *a*, *for*: Etwas kostet so und soviel *per* Centner, *per* Pfund, *per* Elle, *per* Duzend, *per* Stück, or *der* Centner, das Pfund, die Elle kostet so und soviel.

(c) A definite time when something is to be done, *due*, *payable*: Hierbei übersenden wir Ihnen M. 1000, 00 pr. 1. (read *ersten*) Januar We send you inclosed a draft for 1000 marks, *due* 1st Jan.

Note. Three other foreign preps. are much used in commercial language, but they are usually found before nouns without modifying words which can show case, occasionally, however, also before a word which marks the *acc.*—*via* (= *über*) with the same force as in English, *pro for* (= *per*, *b*, above), *à each* (costing, containing, weighing): pr. (*per*, see (a) above) Henriette *via* Neu-Orleans; Preis *pro* Paar M. 0,60 60 pfennigs; Preis *pro* Band geheftet (unbound) 1 Mark; Insertionspreis *pro* fünfze-

spaltene Nonpareille-Zeile 60 Pfennig; große edige Stücke (Seife) von 125 Gramm à (each costing) M. 0,25, dergleichen (the same) in Paketen à (each containing) 5 Stück = 500 Gramm à (costing for each) Paket M. 1; 1 großes Gros à (containing) 12 kleine Gros = 1728 Stück.

sonder = ohne, now little used except in poetical style, usually before nouns without an article, only very rarely with an indefinite article, sometimes with the dat.: Sonder Zweifel, sondergleichen without an equal. Alle Heiligkeit der Erde sonder herzliche Liebe ist Staub. Sonder einer solchen Flasche blieb bei den Griechen ein zu begrabender Leichnam ebenso wenig als sonder Kranz (Lessing).

um. 1. It has in general the force of *around*, either of rest or motion, but has developed out of this meaning a rich store of related literal and figurative ones as follows:

A. *Around* in a literal sense: Alle Planeten bewegen sich um die Sonne. Die Gäste saßen um den Tisch. Es fahren viele Schiffe um das Kap der guten Hoffnung.

(a) From the idea of movement around some central point comes the figurative idea of the central, material cause which excites and attracts our interest and feeling, *over, on account of*: Er trauert um den Tod des Bruders. Ich beneide Sie um diese Reise I envy you this journey.

(b) It often points to the person or thing about which thought, feeling, or action is busied, *concerning, about, with respect to, of, with, for*: Weiß die Königin um diese Neigung? Es handelt sich um die Erbschaft. Just um diesen Brief war mir's zu tun It was just this letter that concerned me. Ich bin so um Unruhe um den Vater I am so worried about Father. Ich komme um den Dheim I come (to consult with you) about Uncle. Wie sieht es um ihn? How are things with (respect to) him? Es ist eine schöne Sache um die Freiheit Freedom is a beautiful thing. Darum (with respect to that) seien Sie unbesorgt. Das habe ich nicht um (of) ihn verdient. Bismarck hat sich um das Vaterland verdient gemacht Bismarck has deserved well of his country. Es ist um ihn geschehen It is all over with him. Schade war's um ihre Haare. The loss of her hair would be a pity. Es tut mir leid um ihn I am sorry for him. Compare *von, c*, in 229. 2.

(c) Movement around in a circle leads back to a starting point, hence the idea of change, succession, alternation: Das Fieber kommt einen Tag um den andern The fever appears every other day. Vete (after) um Vete wurde ausgesandt. Sie sangen einer um den andern They sang alternately.

(d) Movement in a circle implies a desire to encompass, close in on, gain something, hence *um* points to the desired object, the reward, end or purpose in view, *for, after, in order (to)*: Er schickt, schreibt um (for) etwas. Er tut alles um Geld. Er arbeitet um die Ehre. Sie arbeiten um die Wette They are trying to outdo one another in working. Viele bemühen sich um die Gunst der Mächtigen. Er bewirbt sich um die Hand des schönen Mädchens. Er bittet um Verzeihung. Especially with an infinitive: Ich komme, um (in order) Sie zu sehen. It also denotes price and exchange: um jeden Preis at any price; um einen billigen Preis; um alles in der Welt nicht not for all the world; um nichts und wieder nichts for absolutely nothing; etwas um (more commonly gegen or für) etwas tauschen; Auge um Auge, Zahn um Zahn.

(e) In moving around an object we pass it by, miss it, hence the general idea of *loss*: Es krachte ihn um sein Vermögen, um seinen Verstand It caused him to lose his property, reason. Ich bin um meinen Schummer. Er ist ums Leben gekommen. In moving around a circle one must sooner or later encompass it, come to the end of it, hence the general idea of *end*, especially in adverbial use: Das Jahr ist um (up). This idea may also be contained in some of the preceding sentences.

(f) Out of the figurative application of *distance around* comes the idea of *measure of difference*, not translated at all or rendered by *the* (adv.), *by, within*: Er ist um einen Kopf größer als sein Bruder He is a head taller than his brother. Er kam um zwei Tage zu spät. Je fleißiger er ist, um so (the) mehr

lernt er. Dieser Umstand vermehrte sein Leiden um ein Großes (by a good deal). Um's Haar hättest du mir die Terrine da umgeworfen You came within a hair's breadth of upsetting the tureen for me. It also denotes amount, extent: Er strafte ihn um zehn Mark He fined him ten marks. Er hat sich um eine Mark verrechnet He made a mistake of a mark.

B. *In the neighborhood of, near*, used of space, time or number, in a more or less indefinite sense:

(a) Of persons and things in space, *around*. Er hat keinen Freund um sich. Ich bin den ganzen Tag um ihn. Um Berlin herum gibt es viele Sandgegenden.

(b) Of time and number, synonymous with *gegen* (see under 229. 2 the prep. *bei*, 1. h. Note), *about*: Es geschah um Mitternacht, um Ostern. Um dreihundert Hörer an audience of about three hundred. But with the hours of the day um expresses time more accurately, *at*: Er geht pünktlich um zehn Uhr zu Bette.

C. Less frequently, the logical reason (A. *a*, above) instead of its synonyms um — *willen*, wegen *on account of*: Ich liebe dich um deinen Fleiß, or more frequently um deines Fleißes *willen* or wegen deines Fleißes. But very commonly the words *warum*, *darum* instead of *weßwegen* *wherefore*, *why*, *deswegen* *therefore*.

We sometimes find um with the genitive in this meaning after the analogy of um — *willen*: O Gott! Ich danke dir mein Leben nur | um dieser Kunde (Kleist's *Schroffenstein*, 2, 1). Den der Papa um seines Geldes erfor (Heyse's *Im Paradiese*, 1, 178).

2. Occasionally the dative can be found after um, when it denotes rest, after the analogy of other prepositions which denote rest. Das Eis um meinem Herzen (Börne).

wider, see *gegen*.

PREPOSITIONS WITH EITHER DATIVE OR ACCUSATIVE.

I. General Remarks.

231. 1. These prepositions (see list 227) govern the dat. when the place *in which* is denoted, whether motion or rest in that place is expressed, but the acc. when the direction *towards* or *into* an object is expressed: Das Buch liegt auf dem Tisch, but Hans legte das Buch auf den Tisch. Hans lief in dem Zimmer herum John ran around in the room, but Er lief in (into) das Zimmer.

a. Often the two ideas are only figurative: ein Buch über Goethe's „Faust“ a book on (spreading itself over the subject of) Goethe's *Faust*; über allen Zweifel beyond (lit. raised above) all doubt. Wilhelm kam auf einen guten Einfall William hit upon a happy thought.

2. In applying this rule to time the following rule will be of service: In answer to the question *when* they govern the dat., but in answer to the question *how long* and *until when* the acc.: Wann kamen Sie nach Hause? In der Nacht. Wie lange, bis wann bleiben Sie in der Stadt? Bis tief in die Nacht.

3. In abstract or figurative expressions where the idea of place or motion toward does not appear, these rules cannot always be applied, but in these cases the following rule will be found useful: When manner, cause, or means are expressed, an, in, unter, vor take the dat., but auf and über the acc. Manner: in dieser Weise, but auf diese Weise in this manner. Er schreibt am schönsten (see 114. 1), but Er schreibt aufs schönste (see 114. 2). Der König zog unter dem Jubel des

Volks in die Stadt *The king marched into the city amid the hurrahs of the people*, but Es geht über alles Erwarten schön *Things are going along well even beyond all expectation*. Cause: Wir freuen uns an dem schönen Wetter, or über das schöne Wetter *We rejoice over the beautiful weather*. Lena erwachte an (aroused by) einem wilden, markdurchwühlenden (piercing) Schrei, but Mehrere Leute liefen nun auf (alarmed by) den Lärm gleichfalls aus dem Felde herbei. Means: Man erkennt den Baum an (by) seinen Früchten. Means is rarely expressed by auf or über.

4. Sometimes fine distinctions may be made by using the dat. when it is desired to represent the person or thing as already at the place where something is to occur and by using the acc. when it is desired to emphasize the movement of the person or thing towards the place in question: Er wurde in (he is already there) der Gesellschaft freundlich aufgenommen, but Er wurde in die Gesellschaft aufgenommen (admitted by ballot). Setzen Sie sich auf diese Bank von Stein *Take a seat upon this stone bench (the person addressed will have to first walk up to the bench before he can sit down, hence the acc.)*, but in Schiller's drama Tell, who is standing immediately before the bench, says: Auf dieser Bank von Stein will ich mich setzen, as we also say: Sie lagerten sich bequem auf dem Rasen. Dieses Land ist die schönste Perle in der Krone dieses Fürsten (it has long been in his possession), but Das ist ein frisches Blatt in seinen Lorbeerfranz (it has lately been added to his wreath and is here vividly imagined as just entering it) and Ach, liebe Frau Justizrätin, Sie dürfen mir glauben, der Junge ist ein Nagel in meinen Sarg (Isolde Kurz's *Nachbar Werner*). Thus we say: Er wird in der Krone einkehren *He will put up at the 'Krone' (hotel) more frequently than Er wird in die Krone einkehren*, because the idea of future rest in the place is more important than the mere entering of the house. For the same reason T. Storm uses the dat. with sich setzen in the following sentence from a letter to G. Keller, dated June 9, 1880: Ich setzte mich zwischen meinen beiden Meistern, dem Maurer- und Zimmermeister. The poet often uses the dat. and acc. differently from common usage because he paints in more vivid colors.

II. Treatment in Detail.

These prepositions follow in alphabetical order:

an is synonymous with bei, nach, neben, zu, but often with sharp distinctions, as are described in 229. 2, under bei, and in the Note, under zu, I.

1. With the dative.

A. Close approach to or contact with the side of an object, also with various figurative applications, *at, by, on, to, near to, in, about*: Er sitzt am (at) Fenster. Er sitzt am (by) Ofen. Das Bild hängt an (on) der Wand. Frankfurt liegt am (on) Main (river). Er sitzt am Hügel (on the hillside). Sie stehen Kopf an Kopf. Arm an Arm (in English, *shoulder to shoulder*). Es liegt mir am (near to) Herzen. Er ist am (near unto) Tode. Der Wesen steht an (in) seiner Stelle. Es ist nichts an (in) ihm. Es ist nichts Wahres an (in) dem Gerücht. Er hat keine Spur von Stolz an (about) sich. Die Reise ist an mir It is my turn. Dinge, die an (und für) sich (in themselves) gräßlich sind, werden in dichterischer Nachahmung ergötzlich.

Note. Do not confound an *on* with *auf on*. The former denotes contact only with the side of an object, the latter with the upper surface: *an* (on the slope of) *dem Berg*, *auf dem Gipfel* on the summit.

(a) Applied to time, only, however, in certain set expressions, *on*, *in*: *Er starb am* (on) *Mittwoch*. *Wir arbeiteten am Tage* (in day time). *Die Einziger Schlacht wurde am* (on) *18. October 1813* geschlagen. *Es ist an der Zeit*, *an der Stunde* The time, hour is at hand.

Note 1. We say *am Tage in day time*, but in *der Nacht*, because *an* denotes a surface, hence that which is visible, while *in* expresses here the idea of an enveloping darkness. Thus we say *Es liegt am Tage* It is as plain as day, but *Es ist in Dunkel* gehüllt It is shrouded in darkness. Thus also *im Sommer*, *im Winter* because we regard ourselves *within* a period of time.

Note 2. *An* refers to time back of us, and *auf* to time ahead of us: *Ich bin am Sonnabend* (last Saturday) *dort gewesen*, but *Er wird mich auf den Sonntag* (next Sunday) *befuchen*. This distinction is not made in early N.H.G.: *Auf* (now am) *Montag der ersten Woche nach Advent* zog *Heinrich* durch das *Stift* (Luther). *Und es begab sich auff der tage einen | das*, &c. (Luke viii. 22).

(b) The idea of *near approach* to which lies in *an* leads naturally to its use in the adverbial superlative (112. 3. B) of the adjective and the relative superlative (114. 1) of the adverb: *Der Sturm war am heftigsten* (lit. at that which is most violent, i.e. in the most violent stage) *gegen Morgen*. *Er schreibt am schönsten* von allen.

(c) Close approach on a certain side gives rise to the meaning *in respect to*, *in*, *about*, *as to*, *of*, *in the way of*: *Es fehlt ihm an Geld*, *an Fassung* He lacks (lit. in respect to) money, self-command. *Das Land ist reich an* (in) *Mineralien*. *In Italien gewinnt der Kampf der Parteien an Schärfe*. *Ich zweifle an* (have doubts about) *der Aufrichtigkeit dieses Mannes*. *An* (as to) *Fleiß* geht *Karl* allen andern *Knaben* vor. *Mangel an Wasser*, *an guter Luft* lack of water, good air; *schwach am Leibe* (but *im Kopfe*). *So hatte sie in unbefangenster Plauderton ausgefragt*, was sie *in ihrem Kopf an* (in the way of) *Gedanken* vorgefunden.

(d) Close approach gives rise to the idea of rapid succession, *after*: *Peiler an Pfeiler* zerbrach.

(e) Close approach gives rise to the idea of *close application*, *busy* *one's self with*, *being in the act of*, and often *an* together with an infinitive-substantive is equal to the progressive form of the verb in the English: *Ich will dich nicht zurückhalten* — *du bist am Ausgehen* I will not detain you, as I see you are going out (down town). *Sie hatte es gerade mit einem Kinde zu tun*, das *am Kartoffelschälen* war She was just then occupied with a child who was peeling potatoes. It should be noticed that the progressive form of the verb in Eng. may have an object, while in German the object must form a compound with the infinitive-substantive as in the second example. Note also that *an* is here always contracted with the article.

B. Out of the idea of *approach* to and *contact* with comes the conception of varied relations which the persons and objects thus brought together sustain to each other: *Er ist Lehrer an* (in) *dieser Schule*, *Prediger an der Hofkirche*. *Dieser Gelehrte arbeitet an* (on) *einem großen Werke*. *Er hat sich an seinem Gegner tätlich vergriffen* He laid violent hands on his opponent. *Es liegt an ihm* (it is his fault), daß er nicht *vorwärts kommt*. *Er nimmt an den Freuden der Kinder teil*. *Er stieß sich an der Wand blutig*. *Er wird an dir zum Verräter* He will betray you. *Er hat eine Stütze an* (in) *seinem Sohn*. *Er wird sich an seinen Feinden rächen*.

(a) This relation may be that of cause, *of*, *from*, &c.: *Er starb an* (of) *der Schwindsucht*. *Er leidet an* (from) *der Brust*. *Ich labe mich an* (with) *den Früchten*. *Er ärgert sich an* (at) *allen Dingen*. *Das Eis schmilzt an* (in) *der Sonne*.

Note. In earlier periods (and occasionally still) the simple gen. was used here; see 223. V. a.

(b) This relation may be that of means, *by*: Ich höre am Geläute, daß heute Sonntag ist. Man erkennt den Vogel an den Federn. Ich weiß es an mir (*by my own experience*). Er erkannte mich an der Stimme. Er geht am Stock He walks with the aid of a cane.

2. With the accusative.

(a) Direction toward, implying close approach to the side of a person or thing, or even contact therewith, literally and figuratively: Hänge das Bild an die Wand, das Kleid an den Nagel. Er setzte sich an (*at*) meine Seite. Er schreibt an (*on*) das Fenster, but Er schreibt am (*at*) Fenster. Er steckte den Ring an (*on*) den Finger. Er zog den Strumpf aus Wein. Ich habe viel an ihn verloren I have lost a good deal to him (*in cards, &c.*), but Ich habe viel an ihm verloren I have lost much in him. Often with *bis* to mark limit: Das Wasser reichte bis an die Kniee. Er begleitete mich bis an das Tor. Figuratively: Er geht an (*to*) die Arbeit. Ich denke an ihn. Ich schreibe an (*to*) ihn oft. Hier ist ein Brief an (*directed*) Sie. Die Reihe (*turn*) kommt an mich.

(b) Temporally, used only with *bis* to mark a limit of time: Sie tanzten bis an den Morgen.

(c) An approximate number (*for synonyms see in 229. 2 the prep. bei, h, Note*), used as an adverb or prep. (*see 225. 1. c*), *about*: Wie lange habt ihr prepossiert? An die acht Jahre. Es waren an hundert Menschen versammelt.

auf. 1. With the dative.

A. Contact with the *upper* surface of (*see an, 1. A. Note*), *on, upon*: Auf christlichen Kirchen steht gewöhnlich ein Kreuz. Das Buch liegt auf dem Tisch. Also without contact, but as a necessary part of: Der Punkt auf dem i. Figuratively: Ich habe eine Angst auf dem Herzen. Die Sache beruht auf Ihnen. Es hat nichts auf sich It is of no consequence. Was hat es damit auf sich? What of that?

(a) In a number of cases *auf* is used because the present or original conception is that of a place at some height, although the place may be an enclosed one. It is translated accordingly in Eng. *by in*: Er wohnt auf einem Schlosse, auf Nummer zehn (*in hotel*). Er ist auf (*of an upper room*) seinem Zimmer, auf der Burg, auf der Kanzel, auf den Galerien.

B. The idea of an upper surface gives way in many cases to that of a surface in general, considered as a base of operations: Er arbeitet auf (*in*) dem Felde. Im Sommer lebt man angenehm auf (*in*) dem Lande. Friedrich der Große war ein Meister auf der Flöte. Wir segeln auf der Regelsbahn. Wilhelm liegt auf dem Rücken, auf der Seite. Er ist blind auf (*or an in*) beiden Augen, taub auf (*in*) einem Ohr. Auf diesem Wege wird er zu nichts gelangen In this way he will not accomplish anything.

Note. Sometimes there is quite a difference of conception in German and English, as the former regards certain things as extended surfaces or open public places while the latter looks at them as bounded spaces, hence in the former case we find *auf*, in the latter *in, at*: Man kauft etwas auf dem Markt, but *at* the market. Man fährt auf der Straße, wohnt aber in der Straße, while in Eng. one drives *in* the street but lives *on* the street. Thus also *auf* (*in*) dem Friedrichsplatz, *auf* (*at*) dem Bahnhof, *auf* (*in*) dem Chor, *auf* dem Lager in stock, *auf* (*in*) der Station, *auf* (*in*) der Wiese.

(a) Closely connected with the idea of a literal base of operations is its figurative application to political, educational, business, and social organisations and individual activities which proceed on a definite open basis: *auf* (*in*) dem Reichstag, *auf* dem Parteitag at the party convention, *auf* dem Wiener (*of Vienna*) Congreß, *auf* (*at*, of a pupil, but *an* of a teacher) dem Gymnasium, *auf* (*at*, of a student, but *an* of a professor) der Universität or Schule (*but in* der Schule of elementary schools), *auf* dem Kriegsschauplatz, *auf* dem Rückmarsch, *auf* (*at*) seinem Bureau, *auf* der Börse, *auf* (*at*) der Post, *auf* (*at*) der Messe, *auf* (*at*) der Weltausstellung in Chicago, *auf* (*at*) dem Ball, *auf* (*at*) der Hochzeit, *auf* der Jagd, *auf* (*in*) der Flucht, *auf* der Heise, *auf* (*at*) seinem Posten. Man ertappte ihn *auf* (*in*) der Tat. Er steht *auf* meiner Seite. Er ist *auf* seiner Hut. Auf diesem Gebiet in this line (*of study, art,*

music, &c.). Er hält mich auf dem Laufenden He keeps me posted. Auf (at) einigen Punkten haben die socialdemokratischen Stimmen seit der letzten Wahl zugenommen.

Note. In the above, it can be seen how often the German and English conception differs, but on the other hand where the idea of a close body or corporation or position or action *within* a body distinctly appears, *in* is used in both languages: in dem preussischen Ministerium, Kabinett. Doch blieb Luxemburg im deutschen Zollverein.

2. With the accusative, with the general idea of direction toward.

A. Direction or movement toward the upper surface of, implying ultimate contact, *on, upon*: Er setzt sich auf den Stuhl. Er legt das Buch auf den Tisch. Er klettert auf den Baum. Also with movement toward without actual contact, but so close as to form a necessary part of (see 1. A, above): Er setzt den Punkt auf das i. Figuratively: Ich baue auf ihn I count upon him. Coincidence: Das Fest fiel auf einen Sonntag. Er kam auf den Glockenschlag. Er bezahlt mich immer auf den Tag. Er kam pünktlich auf die Minute.

(a) Movement toward an object which according to the present or original conception is situated at some height (see 1. A. a, above), *to*: Er geht auf das Schloß, auf sein Zimmer, auf die Burg.

B. As in 1. B, above, the idea of an upper surface gives way to that of a surface in general, considered as a basis of future operations when reached, *to, into, on*: Die Arbeiter gehen auf das Feld. Sie fahren aufs Land. Sie gehen aufs Eis (to skate). Er macht sich auf den Weg. Er legt sich auf die Seite, auf den Rücken. In nautical language, *for* (the port of): Warum fuhr er nun seit zehn Jahren als Schiffszimmermann auf einem großen Dampfer auf Kalkutta? (*Hamburgischer Correspondent*, 17. Mai 1903).

Note. The same differences of idiom between English and German as described in Note under 1. B., above, appear also when direction toward is indicated: Man geht auf (to) den Markt. Der Hausbesitzer setzte die arme Familie auf (into) die Straße. Er biegt in (into) die Friedrichstraße. Die Friedrichstraße, Wilhelmstraße und Lindenstraße münden (terminate) konvergierend auf (in) den kreisrunden, mit Gartenanlagen geschmückten Völkalliance-Platz.

(a) Corresponding to 1. B. a, above: Man geht auf die Post, auf den Ball, auf die Jagd. Er läßt sich auf den Kampf ein He engages in the battle. Auf diese Bedingungen, Vorschläge kann ich nicht eingehen I cannot assent to, &c. Man ging auf den Scherz ein. Er stellte mich auf (to) die Probe. Often, instead of naming such society or action, mentioning some article or object which is suggestive of it: Er lud mich auf (to) eine Mahlzeit, auf eine Suppe, auf ein Butterbrot, auf ein Glas Wein, auf eine Tasse Tee. Er forderte mich auf Pistolen He challenged me to a duel with pistols. Er hatte zwei schwere Forderungen auf frumme Säbel.

C. Direction of some activity of the mind or of some feeling toward an object, in various relations, representing it:

(a) As an object of attack, attention, or of some feeling either hostile or friendly: Das ist auf mich abgesehen That is meant for (aimed at) me. Er schimpft auf mich. Das Mädchen heftete seine Augen auf den Tänzer. Er ist auf mich gut (or übel) zu sprechen He speaks well (or ill) of me. Er zürnt auf mich. Er ist auf seine Frau eifersüchtig, stolz. Mein Handwerk halte ich hoch und lasse nichts darauf kommen I think a great deal of my trade, and allow no one to say anything against it.

(b) As the object or point toward which the mental activity is directed, usually with a view to furthering, acquiring, enjoying it: Bese Leute merken nicht aufs Recht. Er hält auf Ordnung, auf Ehre He attaches much value to, &c. Seid Ihr 'ne Bäckerfrau, die ihren Mann freit auf ihr Genieß? Are you a baker woman who marries her head-servant with a view to using him in her business? Sie ist bis vor kurzem in Berlin gewesen auf (in order to acquire) seine Erziehung. Ich bereite mich auf das Fest vor. Wer sich von einem Studium aufs

andere wirft, wird in keinem soviel erreichen, als wer sich ausschließlich auf eins legt. Ich verzichte auf meinen Anteil. Er versteht sich aufs Raten He is good at guessing. Er ist auf das Mädchen erpicht. Ich besinne mich nicht auf ihn.

(c) As the end, purpose, design: Der Gelehrte prüft das Erz auf (to see whether it contains) Silber. Ich trinke das auf (to) Ihre Gesundheit. Diese Ware ist auf den Kauf gemacht This article is made to sell. Das Ganze ist auf eine Überraschung angelegt. Wir bestehen auf seine Absegnung. Mich dünkt, du hast nicht gerade auf den Pastor studiert (Jensen's *Heimkunft*, VII) It seems to me that you didn't exactly study for the ministry.

(d) As that upon which the action or feeling rests, and from which the actor draws strength, courage, inspiration, or as the false basis upon which a misdoer stands in order to conceal the true one: Auf seinen Weisand darf ich rechnen. Auf diese und andere Anklagen hin wurde er in den Tower gesperrt. Auf deine Gefahr (at your risk) wage ich es. Sie bildet sich was auf ihre Schönheit ein She prides herself on, &c. Es kommt auf dich an It depends upon you. Ich frage dich auf dein Gewissen. Er hat es auf eigene Faust getan. Er wagte es auf (trusting to) gut Glück. Er machte ein Gedicht auf Bismarck. Es ist gut auf (in) den Herrn (Lord) vertrauen und sich nicht verlassen auf Menschen. Das Kind ist auf meinen Namen getauft (named for me). Einer dieser Pässe lautet auf einen Schweizer, den Furier Koch One of these passes is made out in the Swiss quarter-master Koch's name. Er war auf den Namen Wilhelm Schmidt eingeschrieben (registered under the name of, &c.). So wird dann freilich der Fürst für tausend Dinge verantwortlich gemacht, von denen er keine Silbe weiß, und die ganze Umgebung sündigt auf (on the strength of, under the cover of) seinen Namen.

D. Movement toward leads to the idea of some point of time or of some event in future time, and in general to the idea of futurity and expectation in varied relations (see an I. A. a. Note 2): Es geht auf neun It is going on nine (o'clock). Es ist drei Viertel auf fünf It is a quarter to five. Man hofft auf bessere Tage. Er hat mich auf den Abend zum Essen. Es wird Regen geben auf die Nacht. Die Verordnung über die Einberufung des Reichstags auf (on) den 16. (of next) November ist amtlich bekannt gemacht worden. Meine Frau Pathe (god-mother) habe ich in meinem Leben nicht gesehen, und Sie können denken, wie ich mich auf sie freute (how glad I was at the prospect of seeing her). Ich beschäftigte mich mit den neuen Sommerkleidern, welche mir die lieben Eltern auf das (in consideration of the approaching) Fest hatten machen lassen. Das Geld nahm er zu sich auf den Fall, wo er es gebrauchen würde. Diese Wohnung ist auf Ostern zu vermieten This house can be engaged now for occupancy at Easter.

E. Movement toward a moving object gives rise to the idea of pursuit, and this leads to that of immediate or rapid succession, and hence a sequence or response in general: Er folgt auf mich He succeeds me. Auf Regen folgt Sonnenschein. Auf (after) das Essen darf man keine heftige Bewegung machen. Tropfen auf Tropfen schlug an das Fenster. Blitz auf Blitz, Schlag auf Schlag folgte. Auf die Dauer (in the long run) wird die kleinste Last schwer. Er hört (heeds) nicht auf meine Worte. Er hört (answers) auf (to) beide Namen. Er antwortete auf meinen Brief. Er kam auf den ersten Auf. Die Hausfrau . . . nach um so vorteilhafter von der Schwägerin ab, welche auf den lieblichen Auf (by the title of) Fräulein ging (Raabe's *Hungerpastor*, XIII).

(a) From this idea comes that of following the will or desire of another, closely related in meaning to nach and gemäß: Ich habe es auf (in accordance with) Ihren Befehl, auf Ihren Wunsch getan. Auf (upon) seinen Antrag erfolgte Freisprechung.

(b) As that which follows upon something is often that which is caused by it, auf with its dependent noun is often considered as a cause: Mehrere Leute liefen nun auf (alarmed by) den Lärm gleichfalls aus dem Felde. Der Graf hatte mit Bedauern vernommen, daß sein Dienstmann einen Bürger auf (provoked by) so geringfügigen Anlaß geschlagen habe. Der Baum fällt nicht auf einen Hieb.

F. The limit *up to* which something may extend, sometimes taken inclusively, sometimes exclusively: Er ist auf den Tod verwundet. Ich bin elend, auf mein ganzes Leben elend. Er quälte mich (bis) aufs Blut (almost to death). Er will nur auf (for) einen Tag fortgehen. Er verließ uns auf vierzehn Tage. Auf Wiedersehen! good-by till we see one another again! Bei dem ungewissen Schein des Neumonds konnte man kaum auf fünf Schritte vor sich sehen. Er weiß es aufs Haar or auf ein Haar (accurately). Es kostet auf (as high as) 100 Taler. Man schätzt die Zahl sämtlicher Rumänen (Rumanians) auf (at) 10 Millionen. Sometimes after bis: Er trank das Glas bis auf die Reige (excluded) aus. Alle seine Freunde verließen ihn bis auf (except) einen.

G. A trend in a certain direction gives rise to the idea of manner: Auf diese Art, auf diese Weise wird er sein Ziel erreichen. Er empfing mich aufs freundlichste. Sie fechten auf den Hieb (with broad-swords). Er bezahlt es auf Abschlag (making payments from time to time). Er sagte es auf (in) Deutsch. Aufs Geratewohl! at random, auf jeden Fall in any case, auf keinen Fall.

Note. With superlatives both an and auf denote manner, but as an with the dat. denotes arrival at the goal, while auf w. acc. indicates only a movement toward the goal itself, the latter is more general, and hence its use with the absolute superlative of the adverb, while the former is used with the relative superlative; see 114. 1 and 2.

H. Used distributively to show that which is allotted to, falls to the share of: Die Steuern verteilen sich folgendermaßen (are distributed as follows among) auf die einzelnen Provinzen. Eine Steigung von 1 Fuß auf jede 100. Er verteilte den Vorrat auf viermal. He divided the rations so as to make enough for four different times. Er aß alles auf (at) einmal. Er wurde auf einmal wieder lustig.

I. The idea of resting something on something else gives rise to the idea of an underlying *condition*: Man nimmt einen Koch, Bedienten auf Probe (on condition that he gives satisfaction). Ein Kauf auf Besicht, auf Probe (subject to examination).

außer. 1. With the dative:

(a) Position on the outside of an object or place which has fixed limits, once frequent, but now usually replaced by außerhalb with gen., and in case of greater removal from the object aus with dat.: Die öffentlichen Predigten segar außer (for außerhalb) der Stadt zu verhindern (Schiller). Ich bin verschiedene Tage außer (for aus) Leipzig gewesen (Lessing). Sie gehen in dem Raume außer dem Zelte (for außerhalb des Zeltes) quer über die Bühne (Grillparzer's *Der Traum, ein Leben*, 3).

Note. In a few set expressions außer is still used where the position is entirely indefinite and general, *out of doors*, *out*: Sie arbeiten außer dem Hause (out of doors). Wir speisen heute außer dem Hause We dine out to-day.

(b) The figurative application of the meaning *out of*, *outside of*, *beyond*, now very common, as außerhalb by reason of its accurate local meaning is not usually applicable here: Sie ist darüber außer (*beside*) sich. Ich habe mich ganz in mich zurückgezogen und habe keine Wünsche außer mir (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, II, 3). Der Kranke ist außer (*beyond*) Gefahr. Seid außer (*without*) Furcht, ich bin zugegen. Es ist außer (*beyond*) allem Zweifel. Er ist außer stande (*not able*) es zu tun. Außer Hörweite, außer Schußweite.

Note. Also außerhalb is here used when a definite limit is to be expressed: Das liegt außerhalb des Planes.

(c) Exclusion, *except* (in this meaning also used as a conj.; see 225. 2 and a, thereunder): Alle waren zugegen außer dir.

(d) Excess, *besides*: Er verlangt außer dem Lohne auch gute Behandlung. Er ist dumm und außerdem faul.

2. With the acc. with verbs of motion. The grammarians often demand the dat. here in accordance with older usage, but the acc. is not infrequently found after the analogy of other prepositions, which take the acc. with verbs

of motion: Da ich sie mit solcher Wahrheit reden hörte, kam ich ganz außer mich (Goethe). Du bist nun außer unsere Gemeinschaft gestellt (G. Keller). The older dat. is also still used: Was mich so außer mir brachte, war, &c. (Spielhagen's *Selbstgerecht*, p. 66). The acc. has become well established in certain expressions: außer allen Zweifel or Streit setzen or stellen, außer den Stand setzen, &c.

3. With the gen. formerly, and still found with the gen. of Land and Haus in a few set expressions: Er ist, geht, reist außer Landes (in a foreign country). Wußten Sie, daß ich außer Hauses war? (Marriot's *Der geistliche Tod*, chap. x). Sometimes elsewhere under the influence of außerhalb: Da aber, außer des selig weinenden Kreises, sprach plötzlich eine Stimme, vor derem (151. 1. c) Schmerzensklänge ich erbebt (Anselm Heine's *Eine Gabe*, Brockendorf im Lehrer-Häuschen).

hinter. 1. With the dative:

(a) Position, *behind, back of, beyond, from behind*: Der Hund liegt hinter dem Ofen. Der Hof liegt hinter dem Hause. Wir ritten hinter ihm her We rode along behind him. Die Stadt liegt hinter (beyond) dem Gebirge. Sie drehte den Schlüssel hinter ihm zu She turned the key on him. Er zog die Tür hinter sich zu He pulled the door to after him. Der Sekretär zog die Feder hinter dem Ohr hervor. Figuratively: Er hat es hinter den Ohren He is sly. Er hält hinter dem Berge He conceals his views. Hinter der Sache ist etwas Something is at the bottom of all this. Er bleibt hinter seiner Zeit zurück. Hinter deinem Rücken wird viel Wahrheit über dich gesprochen. Er hat eine schwere Zeit hinter sich He has passed through hard times. Ich möchte es hinter mir haben I should like to have it over with. Er hat mehr hinter sich, als man meint There is more *in* (or *to*) him, &c.

(b) *Pursuit*, or when compounded with such adverbs as *drein* and *her*, also *time after*, and thus closely related to *nach*: Der Hund fuhr wie besessen hinter (after) dem Tiere drein. Ging ein ehrfamer Bürger auffallend raschen Schrittes durch die Straße, flugs sprang Thasso (name of a dog) hinterdrein (after him). Er ist hinter dem Gelde her He is after money. Er hat es mir hinterdrein (afterwards) gesagt.

(c) Succession (see in 229. 2 the prep. *nach*, *d. Note*) *after*: Er kam hinter mir.

2. With the acc. after verbs denoting a direction toward:

(a) Movement toward a position behind or back of something: Der Hund legte sich hinter den Ofen. Sie legten (set) Hunde hinter (on) ihn. Figuratively: Der Schüler geht hinter die Schule (plays truant). Er schreibt sich's hinter die Ohren He marks it well. Ich komme hinter das Geheimnis I shall find out the secret. Er spannt die Pferde hinter den Wagen He puts the cart before the horses. Er führt mich hinters Licht He deceives me.

Note. Once more common than now was the combination *hinter sich* in the sense of *backwards*: Er fiel hinter sich. Die Heirat ist hinter sich gegangen The match has been broken off.

(b) Repetition: fünfmal hintereinander five times running.

3. Earlier in the period and still in Austrian and Bavarian authors *hinter* is found also with the genitive, both with verbs of rest and motion, more commonly, however, with pronouns than nouns: Setze dich hinter meiner (M. Jokay, *Andere Zeiten*, 2, 45). Und schimpfen s'net her hinter deiner? (Ganghofer's *Der Dorfapostel*, v), but Reiner sieht net, was hinterm Mäuerl is (ib.).

iii. 1. With the dat. it denotes rest or motion within a given thing, or on a surface within the given limits which form its boundary, corresponding thus almost exactly to the Eng. *in* or *within*, also in their figurative applications, hence not treated here in detail: Er sitzt, arbeitet in dem Hause. Er steckt tief in Schulden. In acht Tagen reise ich ab. In (within) einem Monat wird alles fertig sein. For certain idiomatic differences here between the two languages see *aus*, B. *Note*.

2. With the accusative:

(a) Expressing a motion toward a position *within* something, corresponding

quite closely to the English *into*, but sometimes translated by *to*: Ich komme in das Haus. Er fiel ins Wasser. Er ging in den Garten. Translated by *to*: Ich gehe in die Stube meiner Schwester. Ich gehe in die Oper, Schule, Kirche, ins Theater, in die Schweiz (Switzerland). In numerous figurative applications variously translated: Schiffe dich in andere Leute Adapt yourself to other people. Er fiel mir in die Rede He interrupted me. Er willigt in alles He consents to anything. Er ist in diese Dame verliebt He is in love with this lady. Er ist mir in den Tod verhaßt I have a mortal antipathy to him. Die (i. e. Komplimente) kann ich in den Tod nicht leiden (W. Hegeler's *Pastor Klinghammer*).

Note. Before names of places having no article *nach* is used to express direction toward, while before names of places that have an article and can thus by their accusative form indicate clearly direction toward *in* is still used: *nach* Berlin *to* Berlin, *nach* Deutschland *to* Germany, but in *die* Türkei *to* Turkey, in *das* geliebte Deutschland. In early N.H.G. *in* could also be used before articleless names of countries.

(b) Direction of measurement or of an activity in general: Die Stube hat achtzehn Fuß in die Länge und vierzehn in die Breite. Zehn Fuß in die Höhe, ins Gevierte (square), bis in das Einzelne to the minutest detail. Es geht in die Tausende It amounts to thousands. Er klettert in die Höhe He is climbing up. In some expressions the dative is also used here with a slight shade of meaning, namely, expressing the idea of extent within a given direction: Das Haus hat achtzig Fuß in der Höhe.

(c) Applied to time usually preceded by *bis*, except in figurative expressions: Er spielte bis spät in die Nacht. Er bleibt mir treu bis in den Tod. Er geht ins zehnte Jahr He is going on ten.

(d) With reference to materials, *in*: Er arbeitet in Gold, in Silber.

(e) An approximate judgment as to weight, magnitude, &c., with a more general and indefinite meaning than *an* or *gegen*, and besides much less common, usually like *an* with the definite article, *about*: Judas schlug die Gottlosen | und bracht je in die dreissig tausent vmb (II Maccabees xii. 23). Sometimes the dative is also used here with a slight shade of difference, namely, expressing the idea of an indefinite extent within certain limits: Es ist in den zwanzig Tausenden, was er schuldig ist.

inner, and in Switzerland also in the form *innert*, *within*, *inside of*, a preposition now little used, governing sometimes the gen., sometimes the dat. or acc., according to circumstances: inner der Grenzen der Wahrheit (Grillparzer), inner des Hofes (T. Storm's *Zur Chronik von Grieshuus*, p. 113), innert einer Stunde (Pestalozzi), inner diesen Wänden (Anzengruber's *Schandfleck*, chap. x), inner die Grenzen aufnehmen (J. von Müller).

mang, often pronounced *manf*, and sometimes written so, confined to dialect or colloquial language in the North.

1. With the dative, *among*, *in*: Habt Ihr denn da mitten mang den Studenten gefessen? (M. Dreyer's *In Behandlung*, 1). It is often found in adverbial compounds, as *damang*, *mittenmang*, and, as is common with such adverbial compounds in the North, is often separated: Da is ja Wasser mang (*in it*, i. e. the wine).

2. With the acc. *among*, *into*: Un mang solch Gesellschaft willst du dich hier hinfegen? (M. Dreyer's *In Behandlung*, 1). Es ist mang (= unter) de Leute jefomm' (Hauptmann's *Der rote Hahn*, 4). In jocular language the acc. is sometimes found where we would expect the dat., in imitation of popular speech, which employs the acc. for both dat. and acc.: Mang die vielen Menschen konnte ich ihn nicht finden (Genthe's *Deutsches Slang*, p. 35).

neben (in early N.H.G. also *beineben* and *beneben*, usually, however, only in the dative relation) with dat. or acc. standing before the noun, occasionally in the form *zuneben* with the dat., also following the noun: Wer dem Sarge geht der Kaplan in Barrett und Mantel, ihm zuneben der Sigrift mit dem Weihwedel und dem

heiligen Wasser (Ernst Zahn's *Wie dem Kaplan Longinus die Welt aufging*).

1. With the dative :

(a) Expressing rest or motion *alongside* of something : Er sitzt, geht neben mir. Er wohnt neben (next door to) meinem Bruder.

(b) In its figurative application, *in addition to* : Mancher Kaufmann hat neben einem Tabakgeschäft auch noch ein Weingeschäft.

(c) Passing alongside of without hitting, hence missing the mark : Das geht neben der Wahrheit vorbei. Er ist daneben gekommen He didn't get anything.

2. With the acc. to express motion toward the side of something : Er setzte sich neben mich. Er hat sein Haus neben das meinige gebaut.

3. Formerly also with gen., and still occasionally found with this case in Austrian and Bavarian dialects, especially before a pronoun : 3'neb'n meiner Tag über | geht's vorbei 3' Neß und 3' Fuß (Anzengruber's *Die Kreuzelschreiber*, 1, 5).

über, in S.G. sometimes for über, with dat. and acc. : Da schau' ich auf und über mir fliegt ein Adler (Byr). Sein Schnurrbart war über die Lippe hinaufgestrichen (Silberstein's *Dorfschwalben*, 2, 87). Über uns gebreitet | dies blaue Gewölbe (Schnitzler's *Der Schleier der Beatrice*, p. 141).

über (with Luther über). 1. With the dative :

(a) Position above something without contact, *over, above* : Der Vogel schwebt über dem Dache. Er liegt immer über den Büchern. Ich bin eben über (occupied with) der Verpackung. Figuratively of social position : Sie steht über ihm.

Note. The idea of place often mingles with that of cause (see 2. E, below) and hence the dat. or acc. is used according as the idea of position or that of cause is more prominent : Und noch jetzt scheint sie (i.e. die Natur) mit derselben Sorgfalt über ihm zu wachen, mit der sein Auge sein kleines Gärtchen überfiehet (Ludwig's *Zwischen Himmel und Erde*). Sollte ein Kommissar über die Ausführung . . . wachen (Ranke's *Päpste*, 2, 56).

(b) Position that can be reached only by going over something = *jenseits, over, on the other side of* : Er wohnt über der Elbe.

(c) Contemporaneity, closely connected with während, unter, *during, at* : Er sprach über der Mahlzeit, über Tische davon. Ich konnte über dem Geschrei (while the noise was being made) nichts hören.

Note. In the last sentence the idea of cause seems to mingle with that of time. The usual rule in this case is that the dat. emphasizes the idea of contemporaneity, the acc. that of cause : Ich erwachte über (while the noise was going on) dem Lärm, or über (on account of) den Lärm. Except in the case of aufstehen, sich erheben, erwachen, nichts hören, vergessen, vernachlässigen, which, perhaps, more commonly prefer the dat. both in the temporal and causal meaning, the actual practice of good authors seems to take little note of this rule, as the acc. is usually found, the idea of cause being in general more prominent. In Und über das Versäumnis haben euch die Spanier das Neß über die Ohren gezogen (*Egmont*, 2) Goethe emphasizes the idea of cause, and uses the acc. where to-day the idea of contemporaneity seems more prominent and the employment of the dat. more common.

2. With the accusative :

A. Denoting motion toward a point above something : Der Adler erhebt sich über die Wälder.

(a) A heaping up of something over something else, hence repetition, *upon, after* : Er häufte eine Sünde über die andere. Ich habe ihn einmal über das andere gewarnt.

(b) Superiority : Der Major geht über den Hauptmann A major is higher than a captain. Zufriedenheit geht über Reichtum.

B. Diffusion or extension over a given surface, usually with contact : Sie breitet den Teppich über den Fußboden. Das Wasser geht über die Wiesen. Der Schweiß floß über sein Gesicht. Er war über den ganzen Leib wund, naß. Figuratively : Unglück kommt über mich. Er fiel über mich her He pitched into me (abused me).

(a) Power, authority, supervision over a given domain, field: Cäsar herrschte über die Römer. Bei Leipzig siegten die Verbündeten über die Franzosen. Der König über das Land, der Aufseher über die Arbeiter.

(b) Mental activity directed in such a manner as to cover the matter in question, *on, about*: Dr. Hermann Baumgart hat ein Buch über Goethes „Faust“ geschrieben. Professor Schmidt liest (lectures) über Elektrizität. Ich spreche über (at some length, while von *may* imply mere mention) etwas. Er weiß manches darüber He knows a good deal about it. Compare von, *c* in 229. 2.

C. A passing over and beyond a certain limit: Der Vogel flog über das Haus. Figuratively: Das geht über meinen Verstand, meine Begriffe, meinen Horizont, meine Kräfte, &c. Ich kann es nicht übers Herz bringen. Er lebt über seine Verhältnisse (beyond his means).

(a) A passing by or through, and then beyond, *via*: Er reist über Hamburg nach London.

(b) Excess in amount, weight, measure, number, &c., *over, above, more than, upwards of*: Er gab über sein Vermögen (more than his wealth justified him in giving). Sie ist über alle Beschreibung schön. Es waren über fünfzig Personen da. Die Rede dauerte über eine Stunde. 'überdies' (in the eighteenth century sometimes *überdem*, after the analogy of *judem*) moreover.

D. Of time:

(a) Represents a future event as to take place after the close of a given period of time: Heute über acht Tage (a week from to-day) werde ich wieder kommen. Thus heute übers Jahr, or without heute, übers Jahr, heute über drei Wochen, übermorgen day after to-morrow, &c. Formerly also with reference to past time, *after*: Darnach vber drey jar | kam ich gen Jerusalem (Gal. i. 18).

(b) Excess of time: über (more than) eine Woche, über ein Jahr, &c.

(c) In a few expressions, *duration*, the prep. standing in case of Nacht before, with other words after the noun: Er blieb über Nacht. Den ganzen Sommer über war ich auf dem Lande.

E. Cause: Man soll sich nie über das Unglück eines Menschen freuen. Ich erstaunte über (at) diese plötzliche Erscheinung. Earlier in the period we find also the dative here: Und er . . . war betrübet vber irem verstopften Herzen (Mark iii. 5).

Note. Also *an w. dat.* denotes cause. The difference between *an* and *über* in this respect is in general that *an* denotes, in accordance with its meaning of a close approach or contact, a closer and more intimate relation than *über*: Er starb an einer Nervenkrankheit. Man lacht über einen guten Witz.

unter. 1. With the dative:

A. A position below, under something: Der Hund liegt unter dem Ofen. Der Hund fuhr bellend unter (*from under*) der Bank hervor. Figuratively: In der Kenntnis des Lateinischen stehe ich unter ihm.

(a) Dependence, subordination: Sie seufzten unter dem Drucke der Herrschaft. Der Lehrling steht unter der Leitung des Meisters.

(b) Below a certain degree, number, value, &c.: Unter fünfzig Mark kann ich die Ware nicht geben. An manchen Orten blieb die Teilnahme unter der Erwartung. Ein Kind unter zehn Jahren. Das ist unter (beneath) aller Kritik.

(c) Contemporaneity: Manche schlafen unter der Predigt ein. Unter Karls V. Regierung war Antwerpen die lebendigste und herrlichste Stadt in der Welt.

Note. Synonymous with *unter* is *während*. The latter usually expresses duration, while *unter* may denote also only a point of time: Der Sakristan schlief während der Predigt, but Er ging unter der Predigt hinaus.

(d) Very commonly used to add some attendant circumstance: Der Kranke verschied unter (in) heftigen Schmerzen. Ich wollte ihn unter vier Augen sprechen. Ich ließ ihm das Geld unter (on) dieser Bedingung. Er tat es unter meinem Namen.

(e) Classification, *under the head of, by*: Unter „Arm“ lesen wir ufm. We find (in the dictionary) under the head of „arm,“ &c. Was verstehen Sie unter diesem Ausdruck? What do you mean by this expression?

B. Position in the midst of, *among* (see *Note 2*, under *zwischen*): Ich saß unter den Zuschauern. Es steht viel Unkraut unter dem Weizen. Unter zwei Übeln muß man das kleinere wählen.

C. Often used instead of a partitive gen.: Unter (of) allen Getränken ist Wasser das gesundeste. See also 141. 2. *Note*.

2. With the accusative:

A. Movement to a point below or under something: Der Hund legte sich unter die Bank. Wir setzten uns unter den Baum. Er wurde in der Schule unter (in rank) seinen Bruder gesetzt.

(a) Change to a condition of dependence, subordination: Unter dieses Joch wird man auch beugen. Sie stellten den Verbrecher unter die Aufsicht der Polizei.

B. Movement toward a position in the midst of something, *among*: Ich setzte mich unter die Zuschauer.

(a) A belonging to a group: Der Krieg gehört unter die größten Übel. Ich zählte ihn unter meine Freunde.

(b) Distribution: Der Wohlthätige theilt Geld unter die Armen.

3. With the genitive in *interdum* in the meantime, while, and sometimes in a few expressions of time: unter Essens (Adelung) during the meal. In der Wohnung war auch viel Besuch unter Tags (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, Act iv).

vor. 1. With the dative:

(a) Position in front of, *in front of, before, in the sight of, at the siege of*: Der Hund liegt vor der Haustür. Der Verbrecher erschien vor dem Richter. Vor Gott und der Welt strafbar guilty in the sight of God and the world. Er fiel vor Richmond. Activity or motion in front of: Er redete vor einer großen Versammlung. Sie haben ihn vor unserm Haus vorbeigezogen.

(b) Surpassing in degree, rank, value, hence also precedence: Sie war vor allen die Schönste. Er hat mich vor (more than) allen anderen beleidigt. Vor allen Dichtern gebührt ihm der Preis. Er hat vieles vor seinem Bruder voraus He has many advantages over his brother.

(c) Applied to time, *before, ago, since, back, prior, ahead of*: Er kam vor seinem Herrn an. Ein Viertel vor 6 Uhr, vor einiger Zeit some time ago, vor nun zehn Jahren now ten years since, vor einigen Jahren a few years back, vor (prior) der Einführung der Gaslaternen. Moses lebte vor Christus. Du kommst vor (ahead of) der Zeit.

(d) Reference to something which stands before one in such a manner or condition as to cause fright, horror, aversion, or before which one must defend or protect himself: Das Kind fürchtet sich (is afraid of) vor dem Hunte. Manche haben Ekel vor halbrottem Fleisch. Dem Feigen ist bange vor dem Tode. Er flieht vor (from) dem Feinde. Ich habe kein Geheimnis vor Ihnen. Nimm dich vor ihm in Acht. Warme Kleider schützen vor Kälte. Ich warnte ihn vor dem Menschen. See also *aus, f* in 229. 2. Also awe: Achtung vor einem or etwas haben.

(e) Cause in a number of set expressions, *for, on account of, with*: Man kann vor Schmerz und vor Freude weinen. Das Herz schlug mir vor langer Erwartung. Er konnte vor Schmerz nicht schlafen. Er kommt vor Geschäften nicht zu sich selbst. Er sieht den Wald vor lauter Bäumen nicht. Er ist rot vor (with) Zorn.

2. With the accusative to express motion toward a point or position before something, literally and figuratively: Der Hund legt sich vor die Haustür. Er spannt die Pferde vor den Wagen. Man bringt die Sache vor den Richter. Er wirft seine Karten vor die Säule. Er tritt vor den Riß (breach). Er sprach vor sich hin He talked to himself. For Schritt vor Schritt see *für, b* in 230.

zwischen with the dat. or acc. according as rest or movement toward is expressed, corresponding in meaning to English *between*: Sie saß zwischen mir und ihrem Bruder. Er ist zwischen 20 bis 30 Jahren alt. Sie setzte sich zwischen mich und ihren Bruder. When it is a question of movement between objects on either side, *zwischen* with the dat. is used, often in connection with some adverb as *hin, durch, &c.*: Zwischen den Kirchenstühlen hin schritten sie wieder auf den

Ausgang zu (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, IV, chap. xxv). Die Antwort kam halb gefächert, halb geschrien: „Angenehme Ruh!“ wie sie zwischen ihnen durchging (Ilse Frapan's *Mamsell Biene*). Sie steht auf und wandelt in tiefem Sinnen zwischen den Gräbern (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, III). The dative is also used with verbs of motion where the idea of position is prominent: Und schnell und machtlos fällt der König des Gebirges (i.e. der Adler) zwischen dem Weg und dem Wald auf die grüne Matte (ib., II). See also I. 4, last German sentence.

Note 1. Also unter can be used of two instead of zwischen, if the noun is found in the plural in a collective sense including both parties, but never if two nouns are taken separately: Es entstand ein Streit zwischen dem Manne und der Frau, or zwischen beiden Eheleuten, or unter den Eheleuten.

Note 2. Zwischen does not mean exclusively *between two objects*, but may also refer to more than two. In this case, it differs from unter in that the latter indicates a confused mingling, a mass, while the former infers that the different objects in one group are homogeneous, and hence the introduction of a foreign object into their midst gives rise to the idea of a twofold division: Ein Schwarm Spähen stob mit erbestem, endlosen Gezwickel auseinander, wie sie zwischen sie fuhr (Ilse Frapan's *Mamsell Biene*). Sein Blick streifte den jungen Gelehrten, der so vergnügt und vertraulich zwischen der ehrsamten Schneiderfamilie saß. Also as in English to express the idea of *individual* relations between more than two: Verkehr zwischen Nationen.

CONJUNCTIONS.

DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION.

232. 1. A conjunction is a particle used to connect sentences or the elements of a sentence. Conjunctions are divided, as in English, into co-ordinate and subordinate.

2. Classification, however, as to their influence upon word-order in the sentence is a better method of grouping conjunctions for practical reasons. The particular word-order required by certain classes of conjunctions is in part explained by their origin and development. Originally a few conjunctions as außer and ohne *except* were prepositions, but they were for the most part adverbs or of adverbial nature. Certain adverbs not only performed their function of adverb within their own sentence, but also served to connect in thought the proposition in which they stood with the preceding or following. Thus many conjunctions still show traces of their adverbial nature in that like adverbs they have great freedom of position as is illustrated in 234, and also cause inverted word-order when they introduce the sentence: Wir waren eben vom Tische aufgestanden, da trat er in das Zimmer We had just arisen from the table when he entered the room. While the co-ordinate conjunctions thus retained the free position and influence upon word-order which they possessed as adverbs, the subordinate conjunctions developed in course of time quite differently, and at present can only occupy the first place in the dependent clause and require the verb to stand at the end of the clause: Ich muß gehen, weil ich Eile habe. In contradistinction to these adverbial conjunctions with their different manner of influencing word-order are the pure co-ordinate connectives which influence in no way word-order, such as und and, oder or, aber but, &c.

Thus the position of the verb at the end of a subordinate clause introduced by a subordinate conjunction is imperative, while on the other hand co-ordinate conjunctions with regard to their influence upon the word-order are divided into three classes: pure co-ordinates, adverbial co-ordinates, and those conjunctions which admit of a double construction, either influencing like adverbs the word-order, or leaving it undisturbed after the manner of pure co-ordinates.

PURE CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

233. The conjunctions which connect sentences or parts of sentences of like rank, and do not disturb the word-order, are:

A. The pure conjunctions *aber* but, *however*, *allein* but, *denn* for, *ja* yes indeed, *nämlich* as, *since*, *oder* or, *sondern* but, *und* and, *entweder* — *oder* either — or (see *e*); and the forms now frequently used as co-ordinate connectives: *wie*, *so*wie, *ebenso* wie, *ebenso*, *wie* auch (all in a general way = *und*, with which they often alternate in the same sentence) *and*, *and* also, *and* likewise, *as well as*, *so*wohl — *als* (auch), or *so*wohl — *wie* (auch) *both* — *and*, *ebenso* — *wie* *both* — *and*, *wie* — *so* *both* — *and*, *nicht* *so*wohl — *als* (or *als* *vielmehr*) *not so much* — *as*, and the adverbial conjunctions *beziehungsweise* (bezw.), *beziehentlich*, *respektive* (resp.) *or as the case may be*, *the one so*, *the other so*, *außer* (225. 2), *anstatt* (225. 2), *ausgenommen* *except*, all of which differ from the preceding pure conjunctions in that they do not usually connect independent sentences, each containing a verb, but only parts of the sentence of like rank, and hence cannot influence the word-order. Of these *wie* and *so*wie are in fact subordinate conjunctions: see *f*, below. Also *als* and *wie* in the combination *so*wohl — *als* (or *wie*) are subordinate conjunctions, but to-day they usually connect only parts of sentences. *Außer* sometimes connects two complete propositions without influencing the word-order; see example below. We more commonly find here *außer wenn* or *außer daß*, with transposed word-order, for such a clause is really subordinate.

Exs.: *Ich gehe nicht aus, denn ich bin krank* I do not go out of the house, for I am sick. Das Bild der Toten wick nicht aus meiner Seele, ja es steht noch heute vor mir. Mein Bruder hat noch eine Verhinderung, nämlich sein Musiklehrer wird heute kommen. Entweder er wird den einen hassen und den andern lieben, oder er wird einem anhangen und den andern verachten. Zwischen Bozen, das stets eine zweifelhaft deutsche Stadt war, und Trient liegt das Gebiet, wo deutsche und italienische Sprache wie Nationalität sich abgrenzen und mischen. Auf den südlichen Halbinseln sowie in Süd-Frankreich blüht die Zucht der Esel und Maultiere. Im allgemeinen ist das Klima (Chinas) ein binnenländisches, durch die östliche Lage des Landes stark beeinflusst: heiße Sommer und kalte Winter, ebenso in den nördlichsten wie in den südlichsten Gegenden des Reiches. Sowohl sein Vater als auch seine Mutter kamen. Hier war es ziemlich ruhig sowohl bei Tage wie bei Nacht (Rodenberg). Dadurch (i.e. its position) ist München wie der Hauptsitz für die Erzeugung des Nationalgetränks so der große Getreidemarkt Bayerns geworden. Nicht sowohl die schlechte Finanzverwaltung als vielmehr die zahlreichen Kriege haben das Land mit dieser Schuldenlast beschwert. Die Artillerie und Kavallerie muß mit ihren Kanonen bezw. (beziehungsweise) Pferden gut umzugehen wissen The artillery and cavalry must know how to handle well their cannons or horses as the case may be. Der Vater resp. (respective) Vermund hat dafür zu sorgen The father or guardian, as the case may be, must provide for this. Ich habe für Fritz und Marien eine Schachtel Soldaten bezw. eine Puppe mitgebracht I brought Fritz and Marie each a present, the one a box of toy soldiers, the other a doll. Alle freuen sich, ausgenommen du. Ich rufe alle, ausgenommen dich. Ganz bestimmt werde ich kommen,

außer ich wäre tot (Felix Schwarzenburg). For another example of the use of *außer* to connect two propositions, see 225. 2. a.

a. Sometimes *und* is omitted and replaced by *;*, when two names are to be associated with one work or undertaking, either as co-workers or to represent one as the original worker and the other as the one who has carried it on after the author's death : *kritische Ausgabe von Bachmann-Munder, der Denkmalsentwurf von Schmitz-Geiger, &c.*

b. The three words *aber*, *allein*, *sondern* differ from each other in meaning. *Sondern* is only used after a negative, and introduces a contradictory statement, while *aber*, which is used after either an affirmative or negative proposition, concedes the statement of the first proposition, and introduces a limitation or a contrast : *Er ist nicht reich, sondern arm* He is not rich, but poor. *Er war zwar nicht krank, aber doch nicht dazu ausgelegt* He was to be sure not sick, but still he did not feel like it. *Er ist arm, aber ehrlich* He is poor, but honest. *Aber* and *allein* have the same general meaning, but the latter is much less used, hence more forcible in making a contrasting statement : *Ich war bei ihm, allein ich traf ihn nicht an* I was at his house, but did not find him at home. *Aber* has also a broader meaning than *allein*; the latter always introduces some limitation to the preceding proposition, while the former may also introduce something different from the preceding proposition without limiting it : *Er war ein großer Feldherr, allein er besaß nicht die Gabe umfassender Berechnung* He was a great general, but yet he did not possess the gift of comprehensive calculation. *Klein aber mein* It is small, but it is mine. *Abel war ein Hirt, Cain aber ein Ackermann* Abel was a shepherd, Cain was a husbandman. *Aber* is also often (especially in the Bible) used without expressing any especial emphasis or contrast, merely to take up in a new sentence the thread of the story : *Der Teuffel aber sprach zu ihm*—Luke iv. 3.

c. *Nämlich* does not always introduce the proposition, but stands even more frequently after the verb, and *aber* has a still greater freedom of position, as it may be introduced at almost any point without influencing the word-order : *Ich konnte ihn nicht sprechen, er war nämlich krank* I could not see him as he was sick. *Ich hoffte es; ich fand mich aber getäuscht* I had hope, but I found myself disappointed.

d. The proposition following *und* has usually normal order, whether the preceding one has inverted or normal order. Sometimes, however, we find the question order after *und* as a survival of an older construction, which allowed a verb to introduce a proposition if it was to be emphasized, lay nearer in thought, or if it came to the front by the removal of the subject towards the end of the proposition for the sake of emphasis. With emphasis upon the verb : *Ihr Herr ist vor drei Jahren weg, und hört und sieht man nichts von ihm* (Goethe's *Stella*, I, 1). *Zwischen dem Kleeblatt (trio) funkelte es rot vom Alsbacher Vorjährligen aus der Flasche und dem Glase und duftete es käsig* (Raabe's *Pechlin*, II, chap. x). With emphasis upon subject : *Ich habe Schiffbruch gelitten auf der ungestümen See dieser Welt, die Hoffnungen meines Lebens hab' ich müssen sehen in den Grund sinken, und blieb mir nichts übrig als die martende Erinnerung ihres Verlustes* (Schiller's *Räuber*, 3, 2). For fuller explanation see 251. II. B. b. Grammarians often condemn this construction, although it is supported by the usage of the best authors, and also by historical considerations.

e. After the first member of the correlative expression *entweder* — *oder* we also find quite frequently the inverted word-order (see 236) : *Entweder werden Sie bald einen Brief von mir erhalten, oder ich werde jemanden zu Ihnen schicken.*

f. The conjunctions *wie*, *sowie*, now used so frequently to connect, like *und*, two parts of a sentence of like rank, are in fact subordinate conjunctions, as appears occasionally when they stand in a clause containing a verb, in which case, as after genuine subordinate conjunctions, the verb stands at the end of the clause : *Für geheiligt galt die Person des Königs, wie (= und) ihm auch*

priesterliche Rechte beizubehalten. The verb may be understood, in which case the contracted phrase is still treated as a subordinate clause, and a following principal proposition has inverted order: *Sowie die Schweiz [seinmal zum deutschen Reiche gehörte] gehörten auch die Niederlande zum deutschen Reiche.* Generally, however, these words do not connect propositions each containing a verb expressed or understood, but connect only parts of a sentence, and as they, like *und*, do not influence the word-order they are classed here.

g. Often several conjunctions are used together with the combined force of them all in a way that is difficult to render exactly into English. Especially is this true of *oder aber*, or *oder aber vielmehr* or *on the other hand*, making more emphatic the second member of the disjunctive phrase: *Der Angeredete mußte eine Stunde lang nicht, ob diese wunderlichen, wenn auch sehr höflich vorgebrachten Worte wirklich eine Artigkeit oder aber vielmehr die spöttische Einleitung zu einer unzeitgemäßen Herausforderung sein sollten (Hopfen).*

B. A number of other conjunctions apparently like pure connectives introduce a proposition or connect parts of a sentence without disturbing the word-order:

a. When adverbial conjunctions connect different subjects of one and the same verb or different parts of the sentence of like rank they do not disturb the word-order, but when there is more than one verb, and they thus connect different propositions, they have the full force of adverbial conjunctions: *Weder er noch ich war da* *Neither he nor I were there*, but *Der Meidische ist weder froh, noch gönnt er andern eine Freude.* *Teils sein Fleiß, teils seine Geschicklichkeit, teils sein gutes Betragen gewinnen ihm Achtung und Liebe, but Die Kisten unterwarfen sich teils den Groberern, teils erkaufte sie den Besitz ihres Landes durch große Opfer.*

b. Often even when there are two distinct propositions with different verbs, the adverbial conjunctions may introduce a proposition or follow the subject without causing inversion, if it is the subjects that are emphasized or contrasted, for here as elsewhere the emphatic word takes the first place in the proposition: *Der heroische und (der) dramatische Dichter machen die Erregung der Leidenschaften zu ihrem vornehmsten Endzweck. . . . Der Fabulist hingegen (or Hingegen der Fabulist) hat mit unsern Leidenschaften nichts zu tun, sondern allein mit unserer Erkenntnis.* *Er billigte dein Verfahren nicht; auch dein Vater billigte es nicht* *He did not approve of your proceeding; also your father did not approve of it*, but when the emphasis rests upon the predicate inversion takes place: *Er billigte dein Verfahren nicht, auch wollte er dich warnen* *He did not approve of your proceeding, also he desired to warn you.* *Selbst even* always lays the emphasis upon the subject or a modifier of the subject when it precedes the verb, and hence in spite of its adverbial nature never causes inversion: *Selbst die Pflanze wendet sich zum Lichte. Selbst die Ermahnung des Vaters, or Die Ermahnung selbst des Vaters, or Die Ermahnung des Vaters selbst* fruchtete nichts.

C. The following explanatory or intensifying conjunctions (see a, below) do not influence the word-order of the proposition: *als*, or more commonly *wie as*, *such as*, namentlich or also *particularly*, nämlich *namely*, *to wit*, selbst *even*, und zwar *indeed*, *even*, *especially*, and *that*, *that is to say*, zum Beispiel (i. B.) *for example*, das heißt (d. h.) or das ist (d. i.) *that is*, geschweige (first pers. sing. pres. tense, the subject *ich* being understood) *denn to say nothing about*. Exs. Aus der Schweiz werden einzelne Produkte in bedeutender Menge ausgeführt, wie Vieh, Käse u(nd) so(w)eiter). Diese Krankheit hat verschiedene Ursachen, als Kälte, Nässe, Zugluft. Der Ruckst legt andern Vögeln, namentlich kleineren, selbst dem Zaunkönig, sein Ei ins Nest. Eine großartig entwickelte Fabrikation in Lederwaren (also Schuhen, Handschuhen usw.) liefert für Frankreich einen Gewinnüberschuß, der den Wert der Einfuhr übersteigt. Die Medizin wirkte kaum lindernd, geschweige denn befriedigend. Das hält ein jüngerer Mann nicht aus, geschweige ein alter.

a. These conjunctions belong here only when they connect parts of sentences not containing a verb, and add to a preceding word an appositional, explanatory, or intensifying word or phrase. These phrases as appositional

phrases in general are equal to a subordinate clause, but the conjunctions themselves resemble in their use more the pure connectives, as they do not affect the word-order.

b. Sometimes also is followed by the particularizing adv. *da* and also by a verb, all three together containing the meaning *such as*: „Wittualien?“ fragte Wally (name) verblüfft. „Nun ja, eßbare Gegenstände,“ erklärte Suse (name) lachend, „als da sind: Kaffee, Mehl, Reis, Grütze, Schmalz.“

ADVERBIAL CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

234. Adverbial conjunctions (except those enumerated in **236**), like true adverbs, generally cause inversion when they introduce the proposition, and have also in large part the freedom of position of adverbs. Hence these conjunctions can occupy almost any position in the proposition except the place between the subject and the verb: Er ist reich, daher braucht er (, or er braucht daher) solche Ausgaben nicht zu scheuen. If some other modifier of the verb is for emphasis placed at the beginning of the proposition in which the conjunction stands, the conjunction *must* stand in some position after the verb and subject: Diesen Menschen, der ich in Wirklichkeit bin, kennst du weder, noch liebst du ihn (R. Huch's *Vita somnium breve*, I, p. 8).

235. The following are the principal adverbial conjunctions, which may be divided into three classes:

A. Copulative:

a. Connecting propositions of equal value: auch, also, außerdem' besides, zudem' moreover, überdies' furthermore, desgleichen' likewise, weder — noch neither — nor: Er hat eine reiche Frau; außerdem hat er selbst ein großes Vermögen.

Note. The conjunction *auch* does not only correspond to English *also*, but has developed quite a rich store of adverbial and conjunctive meanings, the more idiomatic of which are here given:—(1) It often has the force of *too*, and together with a negative the force of *nor*: ich auch *I too*, ich auch nicht *nor I*. (2) Often = *even*: Auch der Gedulbigste kann das nicht aushalten. (3) It adds generalizing force to pronouns and adverbs: Wer er auch sei *whoever he may be*, wo es auch sei *wheresoever it may be*. (4) It introduces or stands within a proposition to indicate that the statement follows or should follow as a natural result of the one immediately preceding: Die Nachricht ist seltsam, auch glaubt niemand daran *The report is very strange, and indeed no one believes it*. Ich will dir verzeihen, nur mußt du es auch nicht wieder tun *I will forgive you this time, but mind you do not do it again*. (5) It is often used in one proposition to confirm a preceding one: (A) Er sieht sehr gutmütig aus. (B) Das ist er auch (A) He looks very good-natured. (B) And so he is. — (A) Er ist gar nicht dumm. (B) Das habe ich auch nicht gesagt, nur daß er höchst nachlässig ist (A) He is not at all stupid. (B) I did not at all mean to say that he is, only that he is very careless. (6) It stands after the verb in a proposition giving the reason for a preceding proposition: Dieser Ring ist sehr schön. Er kostet auch viel *This ring is very beautiful. It ought to be, it cost a good round sum*. Hence it is often used in reproaches, as the reproach gives the reason for the discontent felt: Du fannst (aber) auch nie den Mund halten *It's too provoking, you never can keep your mouth shut*. (7) It is often used in questions to indicate doubt as to whether the actual reality is in harmony or will harmonize with somebody's conception of it: Hast du auch wohl bedacht, was du mir rätst? Are you sure you have considered well what you advise me? Wirst du es auch tun? Will you be sure to do it? Such a doubt can also take the form of a subordinate clause introduced by *wenn*, such as is used in wishes: Wenn er nur auch zu Hause ist! I hope he is at home, but I fear he is not. (8) It is used ironically: Jetzt ist es auch gerade Zeit dazu! This is a pretty time for such things!

b. The second proposition more emphatic or intensive than the first : namentlich particularly, besonders especially.

c. Ordinal conjunctions : erst first, erstens or erstlich in the first place, zweitens secondly, &c., sodann in the next place, dann then, ferner farther, darauf thereupon, zuletzt at last, endlich finally, bald — bald now — now : Erst besinn's, dann Beginn's.

The ordinal conjunctions formed from numerals, as erstens or erstlich, zweitens, &c., are sometimes followed by a pause, and in print are then cut off by a comma, in which case they do not cause inversion : Erstlich, Jesus löste mit scharfem Schnitte die Verbindung der Ethik mit dem äußeren Kultus und den technisch-religiösen Übungen . . . Zweitens, er geht überall in den sittlichen Fragen auf die Wurzel, d. h. auf die Gesinnung zurück (Harnack's *Das Wesen des Christentums*, vierte Vorlesung).

d. Partitive conjunctions : teils — teils partly — partly, einesteils — andernteils, or einerseits — ander(er)seits on the one hand — on the other hand : Reisen ist immer nützlich ; einerseits bereichert man dadurch seine Kenntnisse, anderseits stärkt es den Körper und erheitert das Gemüt.

B. Adversative : (restricting or limiting the contents of the previous proposition) hingegen, dahingegen, and dagegen on the contrary, übrigens moreover, gleichwohl or dennoch yet, however, notwithstanding, nevertheless, trotzdem in spite of that, dessenungeachtet notwithstanding, nichtsdestoweniger nevertheless ; (the second sentence excluding the contents of the first) sonst, andernfalls otherwise, vielmehr but rather. Exs. : Cäsar wurde gewarnt, trotzdem ging er in die Sitzung des Senats. Afrika ist nicht überall mit Wüsten bedeckt, vielmehr zeigt es in vielen Gegenden eine außerordentliche Fruchtbarkeit.

C. Illative : darum for that reason, deshalb or deswegen (and earlier in the period deshalb, derhalben [Romans xvi. 19], derothalben, derowegen) on that account, dann then, nun now, consequently, daher hence, so so, and the conjunctions introducing an inference or conclusion, with the general meaning of therefore, consequently such as mithin, somit, folglich, demnach, sonach : Ich war krank, folglich konnte ich nicht selbst kommen.

CO-ORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS WITH A DOUBLE CONSTRUCTION.

236. The following adverbial conjunctions introduce a proposition like pure co-ordinates without influencing the word-order, or, more commonly, may influence the word-order like adverbial conjunctions, and also like adverbs either introduce the proposition or follow the verb : also therefore ; the adversatives nur or bloß only, im Gegenteil on the contrary, doch, jedoch, indes'en however, yet, entweder either ; sogar even ; vollends added to this, to crown all (introducing a climax) : Der ist groß und stark, wie nur einer sein soll, bloß er hat was Feineres und ist nicht so'n Untier, wie sein Großvater Grobschmied (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. 1) ; or Der ist groß und stark, wie nur einer sein soll, bloß (or nur) hat er, &c. ; or er hat bloß (or nur), &c. Er ist reich, doch ich möchte nicht mit ihm tauschen ; or doch möchte ich nicht, or ich möchte doch nicht mit ihm tauschen.

a. The conjunction nur (or bloß) also quite commonly takes the form nur daß (or bloß daß), and then of course requires the verb to stand at the end of the clause : Und doch weiß man von eben diesem furchtsamen Knaben etliche Schelmstreiche zu berichten, die Heldentaten überraschend ähnlich sahen : nur daß eine Heldentat Sinn haben soll, und Ihre Streiche hatten keinen (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. x).

b. Aside from the question of the influence upon the word-order there is in most cases little difference in the use of the adversative co-ordinate conjunctions *aber* and *doch*. Of these *doch* has the widest use, as it has more adverbial nature, and in its capacity of adverb can be employed when *aber* is not used, as for instance to put a principal proposition in contrast to a subordinate clause: *Wiewohl ich ihn oft gewarnt habe, ist er doch* (or *dennoch* or *trotzdem*, but not *aber*) *wieder hingegangen*.

c. *Doch* follows, or more commonly precedes, the verb, but when it introduces a thought which *seemingly* stands in conflict with the preceding, it *must* follow it: (A) *Mein Vater ist schwer krank*. (B) *Er war doch gestern noch ganz munter*.

SUBORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

237. I. Order of Words. The subordinate conjunctions (see 238 for list), including the relative and interrogative pronouns and relative and interrogative adverbs, now require the verb to stand at the end of the subordinate clause: *Er kann nicht gut sehen, weil er alt ist*. *Es lebte einmal ein König, der kein Kind hatte* (see E, below).

The following exceptions occur:

A. There are six common cases where subordinate clauses are not introduced by subordinate conjunctions, and consequently do not have the word-order of the subordinate clause.

a. In substantive clauses *daß* may be dropped, especially in colloquial language, in which case the word-order is *normal*, or, if some other word than the subject introduces the subordinate clause, *inverted*: *Ich glaube, daß Sie die Wahrheit sprechen*, or *Ich glaube, Sie sprechen die Wahrheit*. *Es scheint, daß es ihnen nicht Freude macht*, or *Es scheint, Freude macht's ihnen nicht*.

There is a decided tendency to drop the conjunctions *daß* and *wie* after they have been used once and to return to the normal word-order: *Der Apotheker unterrichtete Frau Rat Kirsten, daß ein alter seltener Wein in so staubigen und schimmlichen Flaschen auf den Tisch kommen müsse; das sei für den Kenner das Feinste* (H. Böhlau's *Ratsmädchengeschichten*, p. 14).

b. In conditional, concessive, and temporal clauses *wenn* *if*, *though*, *when*, *whenever*, may be dropped, in which case the word-order is that of a question: *Wenn er kommt, so sehe ich ihn*, or *Kommt er, so sehe ich ihn* If he comes, I shall see him. The dropping of *wenn* is not so rare and poetic as is dropping *if* in English, as in *Had I the wings of a dove*. This dropping of the *wenn* is, however, much less frequent now in conversational style than in earlier periods, as can be seen by comparing any recent novel with one from the classical period.

Note 1. If there are two or more subordinate clauses connected by *und* or *oder*, the first of which is introduced by *wenn*, or if *wenn* is dropped and the question-order takes place, the clauses after the first one, instead of taking the regular subordinate or question-order, often have the word-order of a principal clause: *Wenn er dann nach Hause kam* or *Kam er dann nach Hause, und die Frau hatte das Mittagessen nicht fertig* (instead of *die Frau das Mittagessen nicht fertig hatte*), *so schalt er sie*.

Note 2. Such subordinate clauses with the question-order were originally independent questions, as can be seen in the following passage from Luther who places an interrogation point where the revised editions have a comma: *Ist jemand gutes müß? der singe Psalmen. Ist jemand krank? der ruffe zu sich die Ältesten von der Gemeinde* (James v. 13, 14).

c. In the combinations *als wenn* or *als ob* *as if*, *wenn* and *ob* may be dropped, in which case, as in a conditional clause, the question-order results: *Er sieht aus, als wenn er reich wäre* or *als wäre er reich* He looks as if he were rich. See also 239. I. e. Note.

d. In concessive clauses the conjunction can be dropped, in which case either the normal or the question-order is found : *Ob* schon es tausend Leben kostet, rette ich dich, or *Es* koste tausend Leben, ich rette dich, or *Koste* es tausend Leben, ich rette dich. If the subordinate clause is introduced by *und*, the inverted order is used : *Der Mensch ist frei, und würd' er* (even if he were) in Ketten geboren.

e. To emphasize the point of time of an action the conjunctions *wenn* or *als* *when* may be dropped, and the adverbs *kaum scarcely*, *schon already*, or *noch still* substituted in their stead, followed by inverted order : *Als* Sie fort waren, or *Kaum* waren Sie fort, so trat er ins Zimmer. *Noch* harrete im heimlichen Dämmerlicht die Welt dem Morgen entgegen ; *noch* erwachte die Erde vom Schlummer nicht : da begann sich's im Tale zu regen *When* the world, still enveloped in shadowy twilight, was waiting for morn ; *when* earth had not yet awakened from slumber, there arose a stir in the valley. *Am* Seile schon zieht man den Freund empor, da zerrennt er gewaltig den dichten *Ghor* *When* they had begun to draw up the friend (Phintias) to crucify him, behold there he (Damon) came pushing his way with all his might through the throng. Often in these sentences the principal and subordinate propositions as in English exchange roles, the principal proposition becoming the subordinate clause, introduced by the subordinate conjunction *als* : *Kaum* hatten sich die Gäste entfernt, *als* schon wieder neuer Besuch eintraf.

f. In the set expression *es sei* (or *wäre*) *denn unless*, lit. *if it be (were) not*, or kindred expressions, as *er* (sie, es) *müßte denn unless he (she, it) should*, each of which is seemingly a negative conditional clause in force, the clause is not introduced by a conjunction at all, and the normal word-order is used. For fuller explanation of the construction see 168. I. 2. C. *b.*

B. The personal part of the verb sometimes stands before an infinitive, or participle, or their modifiers, instead of standing at the end of the subordinate clause, especially in the following cases :

a. In clauses where the perf. part. assumes the form of the infin. : *Ich* höre, daß er das Buch nicht früher hat erscheinen lassen können I heard that he has not been able to publish the book before.

b. To avoid two similar forms of *werden* from coming together : *Ich* bezweifle, daß diese Früchte je werden bei uns reif werden.

c. Sometimes when two or more uninflected verbal forms (infin. and perf. part.) come together at the end of the clause, the personal part of the verb may precede the uninflected verbal forms in order to prevent the heaping up of unaccented words at the close of the clause, but even here it is usually best to allow the personal part of the verb to stand at the end according to the general rule : *Es* läßt sich schwer bestimmen, ob Deutschland sich jemals zu einer so hohen Stufe würde emporgeschwungen haben, or *emporgeschwungen haben würde*.

Note. In poetry the personal part of the verb may sometimes stand between the two uninflected verbal forms : *Ich* hab' es ja | von dir, daß er gefangen hergeschickt | ist werden (Lessing's *Nathan*).

d. In dialect and colloquial language there is naturally a lack of conformity to the stereotyped rules of the literary language and a tendency to place the important grammatical elements of the predicate, i.e. infinitive and participle, at the end, and then place the personal part of the verb either immediately before infinitive or participle, or less frequently after the subject : *Nu — nu* ich dächte nur — ich meine, (hüßet) weil eben halt der liebe Gott meine Tochter barbu (for *partent*) zur gnädigen Madam will haben (Frau Miller in Schiller's *Kabale und Liebe*, 1, 2). Deine Mutter hast lassen hinrichten, weil du zu freig bist gewesen (Rosegger). Jetzt aß ich mit derselben Gabel, die er hatte in den Mund geführt (id.). *Ich* glaube dir nicht, was du Augustinen geschrieben hast : Daß du festest dein deutsches Gefühl in Frankreich verloren haben (Schulze-Smidt's *Denk' ich an Deutschland in der Nacht*, II).

C. In case the predicate or a word in the predicate is modified by a clause or an infin. with *zu*, the personal part of the verb usually stands before the clause, or the infin. and its modifiers, or predicate complement: Ich bemerkte, daß sie nicht gleich wußten, was sie tun sollten. Als ich am nächsten Abend mich anschickte, zu ihr zu gehen, war das Wetter trüb und stürmisch geworden. Gute Kinder, die sich mit Planen (now usually Plänen) und Ausichten beschäftigen, dich habhaft zu werden (Goethe). In short clauses, however, it is often better to place the personal part of the verb at the end of the clause in case the predicate verb is modified by a short infinitive phrase: Es stehen genug Erdbeeren im Walde, das heißt, für den, der sie zu finden weiß (T. Storm's *Immensee*, Im Walde).

D. Earlier in the period there was more freedom in the word-order, so that we often find some important modifier of the verb at the end of the clause instead of the verb itself: Wer seine Ohren verstopft für dem schreien der Armen | Der wird auch rufen | und nicht erhört werden (Proverbs xxi. 13). Although the position of the verb at the end of the clause has in general become stereotyped, the older freedom is preserved in poetry, and asserts itself not infrequently in vigorous prose for the sake of especial emphasis: Als er's wag in freier Hand, | das Schwert er viel zu schwer erfand (Uhland). Ins Gesicht will ich's ihnen sagen, was ich denke von dir und euch und eurer ganzen bürgerlichen Gestiftung (Sudermann's *Heimat*, 3, 14). In colloquial language also unimportant modifiers sometimes follow the verb.

This irregular feature which is employed for the sake of meter or emphasis in literary or colloquial German is a regular feature in the German spoken by Jews who have not eradicated all traces of Hebrew influence from their language: Ob ich bin der Mann, oder ob es ist ein anderer: es ist doch zu machen, daß man kauft von jedem Menschen, was er hat (Veitel Itzig in Freytag's *Soll und Haben*, chap. i). This order is also found in the German of Poles, Frenchmen, Englishmen, and other foreigners: Weil ich warnen will vor dem reisenden Wolf im Schafspelz, welcher umherzieht und unschuldige Herzen will verführen (the Polish chaplain in Halbe's *Jugend*, p. 96). Compare also the German of Riccaut in Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm*, 4, 2.

E. When two subordinate clauses have an auxiliary in common it usually stands in the second clause and is understood in the preceding one: Seine Unruhe vermehrte sich, da seine Gefühle nicht mehr von den sanften Tönen genährt und gelindert wurden. Sometimes in easy colloquial language the auxiliary is found with the first clause, and is understood with the following one: Ich glaube, wenn wir uns heute mal wieder hinsetzen würden und den Faust zusammen lesen, wir würden wieder wie junge Studenten werden (Hirschfeld's *Der junge Goldner*, p. 62).

F. The relative pronoun *der* has arisen from the demonstrative *der*, from which it at present differs little except in requiring the verb at the end of the clause, and in the familiar language of every day life the demonstrative is still used with normal order in the clause where in the literary language we would expect the relative with the word-order of the dependent clause: Es lebte einmal ein kleiner Knabe, der hieß Hänschen. Es war einmal ein Kaiser, der hatte ein großes Land.

2. *Position.* Subordinate conjunctions always introduce the dependent clause with the one exception that a prep. may stand before a dependent relative or interrogative pronoun: Das Mädchen ging an einen Spiegel, in dem es sich betrachtete.

238. Classification of Subordinate Conjunctions. Subordinate conjunctions which join subordinate to principal propositions may be divided into classes as follows:

1. Those which introduce *substantive clauses*. They are made up of the following groups of words (for illustrative sentences, see 269, 270, 272):

a. The relative and interrogative pronouns: *wer, was; der, die, das; welcher, etc., etc.*

b. A prep. with its dependent relative or interrogative pronoun: *mit wem, mit welchem, &c.*

c. The relative and interrogative adverbs: *da* (early N.H.G.; Matthew viii. 20) *where, wo where, wann when, wie how, warum' why, wonit' wherewith, wodurch' whereby, wozu' to which end, &c.*

d. The conjunctions *daß that, wenn if, when, wie (= daß), and ob whether: Ich sehe, daß er da ist. Ich weiß nicht, ob er heute mitgeht.*

Note. For origin of conjunction *daß*, see 240. a.

2. Those which introduce *adjective clauses*. They are made up of the following groups of words (for illustrative sentences see 271):

a. Relative or interrogative pronouns: *wer, was (153. I. (3)); der, die, das; welcher, etc., etc; so (153. 5); dergleichen, desgleichen (161. 2).*

b. A prep. with a dependent relative: *mit dem, mit welchem, &c.*

c. Relative or interrogative adverbs: *wo* (see 153. 3. A, C. c) *where, in which, when; wofelbst' or occasionally dafelbst' in which place; da (153. 3. A. C. d) where, when; da denn* (see *Note 2*, below); *weßhalb, or weßwegen (151. I. b), or less commonly daher' on which account; wenn* (see 153. 3. C. b) *or wann* (in indirect questions) *when; wie as, how, in which; the compounds worin' in which, wobei', woran', &c., or occasionally in their stead the demon. compounds darin', dabei', &c.*

Note 1. In familiar speech the compound relative adverbs are often separated; see 153. 2. and B. thereunder.

Note 2. Goethe is fond of using *da denn* in the meanings *in consequence of which, under which circumstances: Auch sang der Alte nicht übel, und meine Mutter mußte sich bequemen, ihn und sich selbst mit dem Klaviere täglich zu affekompagnieren; da ich denn das Solitario bosco ombroso bald kennen lernte* (Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, I, 1). *Er saß fast niemals, als wenn er seine Harfe nahm und darauf spielte; da er sie denn meistens mit Gesang begleitete.*

d. *Daß (168. II. G. b, 153. 3. C. e), ob (168. II. F. a, 2nd par., and 169. 2. F. a, 3rd par.), wie (168. II. F. a, 2nd par., 169. 2. F. a, 3rd par., 153. 3. D. (1)), sometimes als (153. 3. D. (1)): Wallenstein schmeichelte sich noch immer mit der Hoffnung, daß viele zu ihm noch umkehren würden. Ich arbeitete bis zu der Zeit, daß er kam.*

3. Those which introduce *adverbial clauses*. They are made up of the following groups of adverbial conjunctions indicating:

A. Place: *wo where, woher' whence, wohin' whither; in* early N.H.G. and still in elevated diction *von wannen (= woher) and da (= wo, for example see John vii. 34). Compare with 274.*

B. Time: *als* used of an actual occurrence or a definite state of things in past or present (see c, below) time, more commonly, however, the former; *wenn* (see b and c, below) or now rarely *wann when, whenever*, used with a present or past tense to indicate that something is or was *accustomed* to happen, and with a future tense to indicate a point of time in the future; *wo* (see c, below) = *als*; *da* (see c, below) corresponding to M.H.G. *dô = als*, but now more frequent in elevated discourse than in plain prose, though very common in early N.H.G. and the classical period; *da* (M.H.G. *dâ*), earlier in the period used with the force of temporal *while* and adversative *während while, while on the other hand*, and in the latter meaning still found in the form of *da doch while, although; wie = als*, common in colloquial language, especially with a present tense (see c, below), sometimes also = *sobald, wenn, indem; kaum daß or kaum* (see d) *when — scarcely; so eßt [als] as often as; sobald' [als], wie or siewie' as soon as; inzwischen, inzwischen daß, and less commonly mittlerweile while (in the meantime); während, während daß* (not now

so much used), *indem'*, *indessen*, *indes'*, *unterdessen*, *unterdes'* (and the following forms common in early N.H.G. and still later, but now rare in prose: *weil*, *derweil*, *biweil*) while; *seit daß*, *seitdem daß*, now more commonly *seit* (not rare, as stated by some grammarians) and *seitdem since*; *solange* [*als*] *as long as*; *bis daß*, now more commonly *bis until*, *by the time that* (see *e*, below), in early N.H.G. also *while*, *as long as* (Matt. xxvi. 36); *ehe* or *bevor before*, or more emphatically *ehe und bevor*; *nachdem' after*. Compare with 275.

a. From the meaning of contemporaneity, *während*, *indessen*, and *inzwischen* take on often adversative or contrasting force: *Manche Menschen bleiben in gewisser Beziehung ewig Kinder, indes andere vor der Zeit Greise werden*.

b. The form *wann when* is rare only as a conjunction. As an interrogative adverb it is the common form both in direct and indirect questions: *Wann kommt er?* *Ich weiß nicht, wann er kommt*. The form *wenn*, like the English *when* of to-day, once had a wider meaning, being used as an interrogative adverb = *wann*, and also as a conjunction with the force of *als* in addition to its present force, and sometimes in dialect or colloquial language this usage can still be heard: *Herr | Wenn (= wann) haben wir dich hungerig gesehen | und haben dich gespeiset* (Matt. xxv. 37). *Sicher, du überlegtest nicht wohl, o Mädchen des Auslands, | wenn (= als) du, bei Fremden zu dienen, dich allzu eilig entschlossdest, | was es heiße, das Haus des gebietenden Herrn zu betreten* (Goethe's *Hermann*, IX, 113-115). *Wenn (for wann) geht der beste Zug?* (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, Act iii).

c. There is considerable fluctuation in the use of conjunctions which indicate a point of time. With reference to an actual state, or actual event or occurrence in past time in connection with a past (or historical present) or past perfect tense, the conjunction which is most widely used in the literary language is *als*, in poetry and choice prose not infrequently also *da*. After the conjunction *als than*, *da* is preferred to *als when*, to avoid the unpleasant repetition of *als*: *Wie eine elegante, junge Dame stand Lenes Tochter da; schlank, noch ein wenig mager, doch voller als, da sie kam* (Wilbrandt). In colloquial language *wie* is also in general quite frequently used instead of either *als* or *da*. Also *wo* is employed here, especially after a preceding adverb, as in *damals, wo*. With reference to present time usage is quite unsettled. *Als* is sometimes employed here, and in poetry and choice prose also *da*: *Es ist spät in der Nacht, als ich dies schreibe* (Raabe's *Sperlingsgasse*, p. 238). *Du kommst nur eben, da ich reisen muß* (Goethe's *Tasso*, I, 4). *Und willst du jetzt, da deinen Wahn besiegt | Wahrheit und Treue, schwesterlich verwehen, | da Falsch und Echt entschleierte vor dir liegt, | nicht einmal noch zu deines Vorges Glück | die Wunderkraft des Talismans erproben?* (Fulda's *Talisman*, 4, 8). *Wie* is more commonly used here: *Ich will nicht dabei sein, wie Mutters Brautkleid verkauft wird* (Halbe's *Das tausend-jährige Reich*, p. 52). *Ja, wie ich das jetzt schreibe, erfahre ich es erst, wie gut sie bei seiner Mutter Bescheid wußte* (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 95). *Wo* is also often used here, especially when preceded by an adverb of time: *Und jetzt, wo wir glücklich dastehen* (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, I). *Ich glaube dir nicht, was du Augustinen geschrieben hast: Daß du solltest dein deutsches Gefühl in Frankreich verloren haben. Es wird doch schon nicht so sein, wo unser deutsches Reich in hohen Ehren dasteht* (Schulze-Smidt's *Denk' ich an Deutschland in der Nacht*, II). With reference to a point in the future, *wenn* is the most common conjunction: *Und wenn du dann geheizt hast, gehst du in die Kantine* (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, 2, 1). *Wo* is also used in colloquial language: *Ja, wo du wieder da bist, hab' ich mir gedacht, sollen auch die Lichter wieder brennen* (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, I).

d. The adverb *kaum*, usually in the form *kaum daß*, also sometimes simply *kaum*, has developed into a conjunction with the meaning *when — scarcely or barely*: *Kaum daß ich Bacchus den lustigen habe, kommt auch schon Amor* (Schiller). *Kaum diese Worte gesprochen waren, wandte sich die junge, schöne Frauengestalt um und verschwand hinter der Tür* (Rosegger's *Martin der Mann*, p. 14).

e. Note the use of *bis* in the meaning *by the time that*: *Bis du nach Rom zurückkommst, ist die längst Großmutter* (Sudermann's *Johannes*, I, 1).

C. Manner or Quality :

a. Expressing a comparison (see 239): *wie*, *so*wie or *gleichwie* *as*, *wie auch* *as also*, *wie denn* (Ephesians i. 4) *even as*, *just as*, *according as*, *als wenn*, *als* (237. 1. A. c) or *als ob* *as if*, *wie wenn* *as when*. Compare with 276. A and 239.

b. Expressing an attendant circumstance: *indem* *as*. Ex.: *Die Lerche singt ihr Lied, indem sie sich in die Lüfte schwingt*. Compare with 276. B.

c. Expressing a result: *so* — *daß so* — *that*; *solch* (or *derartig* or *simple* *der*, *ein*, or *fein* before a substantive; see 271. I) — *daß such* — *that*; with negative force: *anstatt daß* *instead of*, *ohne daß* *without*, *daß nicht* *that* — *not*, *without*, common earlier in the period, where *ohne daß* is now used, *geschweige* (*ist pers. sing. pres. tense, id* being understood) *denn daß* *to say nothing about*, *much less*. A question may replace the words in the principal proposition: *Was ist der Tod, daß er mich schrecken sollte?* (= *der Tod ist nichts derartiges, daß, &c.*). Compare with 276. C.

D. Degree or Intensity.

1. Expressing a comparison :

A. Signifying a degree equal to that of the principal proposition :

a. Expressing a comparison: *so*, *also* (rare) or *ebenso* (in the principal proposition) — *als* or *wie* (see 239. 3) *as* — *as*, *so* (with corresponding *so* in the principal proposition: *so hoch er stand, so tief und schmähslich war sein Fall*) *so*, *was* (as in *da lies er, was er konnte*) *as much as*, *as fast as*. Compare with 277. 1. A. a.

b. Expressing a proportion: *je* (in the sub. clause) — *desto*, or *um so*, or *um desto*, or now more rarely *je the* — *the* (as in *Je höher er stieg, um desto bescheidener wurde er*), *danach'* (still in proverbs), *nachdem'* (especially in early N.H.G.), *je nachdem'* (common form) *according as*. Compare with 277. 1. A. b.

c. Expressing a restriction: *insofern'*, *soweit'*, *inwiefern'*, or *soviel'* (in the principal proposition) — *als* (or *inwiefern'* or *inwieviel'*) *just in so far*, or *to as great an extent*, or *as much* — *as*, (in) *sofern'*, (in) *soweit'*, or *inwiefern'* (now rare) *so far as*. Compare with 277. 1. A. c.

B. Following a comparative expressing a different degree from that of the principal clause: weder (early N.H.G.; Job xxxiii. 12; now obsolete, see 239. 1. a. Note 2) *than*, *denn* (early N.H.G.; now less common, see 239. 1. a. Note 2 and 6) *than*, *als* (common form) *than*, *wie* (239. 1. a. Note 1) *than*, *als* (more rarely *denn*) *daß* *than that*, *als wenn* *than when*.

2. Expressing a result: so, der (see 271. I), or *ein* (see 271. I) — *daß so* — *that*, *such* — *that*; *daß so that*; *faum daß* *so that scarcely*; (in the principal proposition *zu* + positive, or more rarely a comparative instead of *zu* + positive) — *als daß too* — *to* (as in *Die Firsterne sind zu weit von uns entfernt, als daß wir von ihrer Natur etwas Genaueres wissen könnten*). The clause of result may follow a *genug*, *hinreichend*, *hinlänglich* in the principal proposition: *Ich hatte mir das Bild ihrer Liebenswürdigkeit tief genug eingebracht, daß es so leicht auszulöschen nicht war* (Goethe). Compare with 277. 2.

E. Cause :

Cause or reason: da'rum daß (early N.H.G.; Luke viii. 6) *because*; *weil* (in early N.H.G. also *alldieweil*, *dieweil*; Genesis iii. 17) or *indem'* *because* (material cause and in case of *weil* also motive); *nachdem'* (Austriacism) = *weil*; *da* *as*, since (logical reason); *da ja* or *da doch* since indeed; *anwenen* (in official or archaic language) in consideration of the fact that, since, *as*; *maßen* (dat. pl. of *Maße*, now little used) seeing that, since; *inwieweil* (early N.H.G.; Acts xvii. 24) seeing that, since; *daß* *that*; *zumal'* especially *as*; *nun* now since, now that; *desto*, or *um desto*, or *um so* (before a comparative in the principal proposition) — *als* all the more — *as*; *da'ven*, or *da'tan*, or *da'rin*, or *da'her*, &c. (in the principal proposition) — *daß* from this (cause or source), by (because of) this, &c. — *that*. Compare with 278.

a. The most popular of these conjunctions is *weil*, and it often has a wider use than the one above indicated, encroaching upon the territory of *da*.

b. In the classical period *weil* is also still used in a temporal sense = *so lange als* or *während*: *Das Eisen muß | geschmiedet werden, weil es glüht* (Schiller's *Piccolomini*, 3, 1).

The following five classes may also be classed as sub-divisions under the general head of *Cause*.

F. A condition or restriction: *ob* (early N.H.G.; see I John ii. 1) if, *so* (early N.H.G.; Matthew iv. 9) if, the former now obsolete, the latter now rare, *wo* (rare except in the expression *wo möglich*) if, *wenn* (common form) if, *wenn anders* provided that, *wofern* or *dafern* (rare) if, provided that, *wenn* (or *wo*) *nicht* if not, *falls* or *im Falle daß* in case that, *doch daß* but only on the condition that, *auf daß* except that, *aufßer wenn* if not, unless, *nur daß* if it were not that, except that, *ohne daß* (after a negative) but that, unless, *es sei* (or *wäre*) *denn daß*, or *denn* (preceded by the present or past subjunctive, with normal word-order: *Ich lasse dich nicht, du segnest mich denn* — Gen. xxxii. 26, revised ed.) if not, unless, *wer* (159) for anybody who. Compare with 279.

Note. The explanation of the force of the subjunctive in *es sei* or (*wäre*) *denn* and the seeming negative meaning of *denn* is given in 168. I. 2. C. b.

G. A concession: *so doch* (early N.H.G.; Jeremiah iv. 10) although, whereas, *ob* (Luke xvi. 31), or *und ob* although, *ob* — *ob* whether — or, *ob auch*, or *wiewohl* although, and the more common words having the same general meaning of *although*: *obgleich*, *obwohl*, *obschon*, *obzwar*, *wenngleich* (sometimes separated, but not so frequently as formerly: *ob* — *gleich*, *ob* — *wohl*, &c.) and the separable forms *wenn schon*, *wenn auch*; *auch wenn* even though; *so* (followed by an adverb or an adjective, or a noun with its preceding modifying adjectives) — *auch* however (e.g., *So groß er auch ist*) and with the same meaning and construction *wie*, *wie auch*; *welch* (followed by a noun) — *auch* however, whatever, *wer auch* whoever, *was auch* whatever, *wo* — *auch* in whatever place, *wohin* — *auch* to whatever place; *ungeachtet* or *unerachtet* (or more rarely *ohngeachtet*), or now less commonly *ungeachtet daß* notwithstanding that, *trotzdem* or *trotzdem daß* in spite of the fact that. Also certain temporal conjunctions assume concessive force: *da* (earlier in the period), *da doch*, *indem doch*, *während doch*, *wo doch* (colloquial) while, although. Compare with 280.

H. Purpose or end: the older now less common forms *d(a)rum* (*da'rum*) *daß*, *auf daß*, *daß* (oldest form, but still used in colloquial language), the newer now more common *damit* in order that. Compare with 281.

I. Means: *da'durch* (or *da'mit*, &c.) *daß*, or separated *da'durch* — *daß* by: *Man gefällt oft am meisten dadurch, daß man andern Gelegenheit zu gefallen verschafft. Den Mangel an Reiterei wußte er dadurch zu ersetzen, daß er Fußgänger zwischen die Reiterei stellte.*

J. Material: *da'raus* — *woraus* out of that — out of which, or *da'von* — *wovon*. *Machen Sie mir da'von einen Rock, wovon Sie meinem Freunde einen Mantel gemacht haben* Make me a coat of the same material as that out of which you made a mantle for my friend.

239. Subordinate Conjunctions used in making Comparisons. The following subordinate conjunctions, which are used in making comparisons, are by reason of their importance treated at some length below: *als* than, *from*, but, except, *as*; *wie* as, like, *than*; *denn* than; *weber* than; *als wie* as, than. Of these words *wie* is the favorite, especially in N.G., and is much used even where it ought not to be. Hence there is some confusion in the use of these words, but the following may serve as a fair outline of their proper usage:

I. *Als* is used:

a. After a comparative: *Hans ist größer als Wilhelm. Roter als Blut.*

Note 1. Als and the still older denn are now very often replaced here by wie, not only in colloquial language, but also in a serious literary style: Einem schöneren Jüngling wie diesem Gottfried von Lessow bin ich in meinem ganzen Leben nicht begegnet (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!* II). Es ist mir mehr vertraut, wie meiner toten Mutter Wiegenlieder (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 4). Die Vermögensverhältnisse hatten sich als noch zerrütteter herausgestellt, wie man annahm (G. Ompteda's *Eysen*). Allein sie ist um vieles jünger wie du (H. von Hofmannsthal's *Die Hochzeit der Sobeide*, III). Dufmäuferei nämlich konnte Falkenheim noch weniger ausstehen wie Spiel und Tanz (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan?* III).

Note 2. In early N.H.G. denn was usually and weder sometimes used after the comparative: Und die Schlange war listiger denn alle Thier auff dem selbe (Gen. iii. 1). Denn ein Nachbar ist besser in der nahe | weder ein Bruder in der ferne (Prov. xxvii. 10). In the middle of the sixteenth century als begins to appear instead of denn. The old usage rot als Blut, röter denn Blut has become rot wie Blut, röter als Blut. See also Note 1.

b. After the pronominal anderz, negatives, questions with negative force, and sometimes after allz and jedz: Mein Urtheil ist ein ganz anderes als das Ihrige. Ich urtheile darüber ganz anders als Sie. Niemand als Sie würde das gewagt haben Nobody but you would have dared to do that. Ich fühle mich nirgends glücklich als hier I am happy nowhere except here. Ich wünsche mir nichts als Ruhe. Was kann er mir vorwerfen, als einen gewissen Stolz? Gefühllos jedem Schmerz, als ungeliebt zu sein (Wieland). An allem Mangel leidend, als an Schmerz (Grillparzer's *Medea*, 1) *suffering a lack of everything but pain.*

Note. Wie is often used here instead of als, especially in colloquial language: Ich habe ihn eigentlich gern, weil er anders ist wie andere (Fontane's *Stecklin*, XIII). Sie werten anders, wie Ihre Eltern werten (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, 4). Sie war so ganz anders wie die anderen (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, XV). Jeder Trost war aus ihrer Seele wie weggewischt. Nichts war darin wie maßloser Zummer (Boy-Ed). Du hast's ja selber zu tragen! Kein anderer wie du! (Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 45). Also even in the higher forms of literature: Und da ich nun einmal nichts wie zu lieben weiß (Sudermann's *Die drei Reiherfedern*, 3, 10).

c. After sobald, so oft, solange, sofern, soviel, &c., in which cases it is now more commonly suppressed: Komm sobald [als] du kannst, und bleib solange [als] du darfst. Although als may be omitted the verb must stand at the end of the clause: Sobald [als] die Wege fahrbar sind, komme ich zu dir.

d. In the combination sowohl — als as well — as, both — and: Sowohl dem gegenwärtigen als auch dem vergangenen Jahrhundert verdanken wir große Fortschritte in Kunst und Wissenschaft. Here we also now find sowohl . . . wie, and indeed wie is more common than als if the identifying als described in 4, below, follows: sowohl in seiner Eigenschaft als Berliner wie als Mensch überhaupt (Raabe's *Die Villa Schönau*, V).

e. In the combinations als wenn (or also wie wenn), als ob as if, as though, in comparisons that are represented as resting not upon absolutely assured facts, but upon personal impressions, appearances, or even represented as unreal, contrary to fact: Es scheint, als wenn, or als ob sie reich wären. Ich tat, als wenn, or als ob ich es nicht bemerkte.

Note. In early N.H.G. als could be used alone without wenn or ob and still be followed by the dependent word-order; see 1 Sam. xx. 20. If als be used alone, present usage requires the question-order; see 237. 1. A. c.

2. Wie is used:

a. After the positive of adjectives: weiß wie Schnee white as snow. Karl ist ebenso fleißig wie du. Karl ist so alt wie Wilhelm.

When the adjective which would stand in the second member has already been mentioned, it may be suppressed in colloquial speech: Richard: Amtlich? (Is the dispatch) official? Holtzmann: So gut wie (Sudermann's *Es lebe das Leben*, pp. 43-44).

Note. Formerly *als* (of the same origin as English *as*) stood after the positive, as is still occasionally found in early N.H.G.; see Matt. xxviii. 3. A survival of this older usage is still preserved in certain constructions, especially after *so* and *selbst*, where *als* can occasionally be found: *so geschwind als* (or *wie*) *möglich*. This accounts for its use in 1. *c* and *d*, above.

b. Also in connection with verbs to indicate likeness, similarity: *Das Schiff flog dahin wie ein Pfeil. Karl spricht, wie er denkt, but Er sprach anders, als (1. b) er denkt.*

Note. In early N.H.G. *als* was here still frequently used, and even later in the classical period: see Matt. xxii. 39. A survival of this former usage is still preserved in the construction mentioned in 1. *e*, above.

c. Often in the combination *wie wenn* *as when* (or also *als wenn* after *so* or a negative) in comparisons which are represented as real: *Es zischt, wie wenn Wasser sich mit Feuer mischt. Kein Frühling weiß so traut und wohl zu klingen, als wenn zum Herzen Freundesworte dringen. Der Mensch ist nie so schön, als wenn er um Verzeihung bittet oder selbst verzeiht.*

d. After the comparative; see 6, below, under *benn*; also 1. *a*, *Note 1*, above.

e. After negatives; see 1. *b*, *Note*, above.

3. In one case usage fluctuates between *als* and *wie*, with, perhaps, the preponderance on the side of *wie*, namely, in comparing different objects or actions as to the degree or intensity of certain qualities or forces. The grammarians demand *als* when degree, intensity, is to be expressed, and *wie* to express manner, likeness, quality. Degree: *Er schreibt so schlecht als du. Manner: Er schreibt schlecht wie du. Degree: Eine plötzliche Freude ist so gefährlich als ein plötzlicher Schreck. Likeness: Das Herz war so ruhig wie die Bienenquelle.* This distinction is a nice one theoretically, but it is not supported by practice, as can be seen in the best modern authors: *Es gibt keinen anderen Menschen mehr auf Erden, der so allein ist wie ich* (Raabe's *Zum wilden Mann*, chap. 5).

4. In the predicate, however, a sharp distinction is now made between *wie* and *als*. Here *als* is used in all appositional constructions and hence denotes *identity, oneness with*, while *wie* expresses mere *similarity*: *Ich ehre ihn als meinen Vater* I honor him as my father (which he is). *Ich ehre ihn wie meinen Vater* I honor him just as I would my father, or like my father. *Sie sprachen mit einander als Freunde* They were speaking together as friends (which they were). *Sie sprachen mit einander wie Freunde* (like friends, but they were not). *Leonidas focht bei Thermopila wie ein Löwe und fiel als ein Held. Friedrich Wilhelm der Vierte haßte die Revolution nicht bloß wie, sondern als die Sünde.* For that class of appositional constructions which merely add an explanatory word or words to a previous noun, see 233. C.

a. The distinction between *als* and *wie* described above is quite commonly neglected in the colloquial language of the North, as *wie* here as elsewhere replaces *als*: *Ich wie dein Alter, Kerlchen, ich hätt' all meinen Rotzpon selber getrunken vor meinem End'!!* (Halbe's *Mutter Erde*, 3, p. 157).

5. *Als* *wie* was frequently used in the classical period instead of *wie* after a positive and instead of *als* after a comparative, and is still so used in colloquial N.G.: *Und bin so klug als wie zuvor* (Goethe's *Faust*, I, Nacht). *Weißer als wie Schnee* (Wieland). *Wir finden wohl heute abend keine Stätte in Amelingsborn, wo er besser ruhte als wie hier* (Raabe's *Odfeld*, chap. xxiv). Sometimes even in the higher forms of literature: *Selbst die Abendröte | schaut anders aus als wie zuvor* (Sudermann's *Die drei Reihersfedern*, 5, 2).

6. *Denn* (see *Note 2* under 1, *a*, above), which was so common after the comparative in early N.H.G., is now in general much less used there, but

it is not so rare as grammarians often represent, at least so in the North: mehr denn hundert Jahre lang (Treitschke), mehr denn ein Menschenalter durch (Raabe's *Höxter und Corvey*, chap. 13), während seines mehr denn sechzigjährigen Lebenslaufes (id., *Eulenspiegel*, chap. 6), blühender denn je (H. Hoffmann).

It is, moreover, quite frequently employed after the comparative instead of als when there is already an als (the identifying als described in 4 above) in the sentence: Das betrachten wir eher als eine Tugend denn als einen Fehler (G. Keller). Wie is perhaps still more common here, especially in colloquial language: Als sie wahrnahm, daß ihr Besuch mehr als Störung wie als Freude empfunden wurde (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. 9). Viel höher wie als Epifer steht Hebbel als Tyrifer (Adolf Bartels).

a. Denn was common in early N.H.G. after a negative or anders, and survives in poetic language: Bei dir gilt nichts denn Gnad allein (Luther). Noch jetzt erscheint der Sohn mir im Traume anders nie denn frisch und blühend (Uhland). Der Wind hatte seine Stimme wiederum erhoben; doch nicht so laut denn zuvor (Raabe's *Else von der Tanne*).

7. After comparatives, *weber than* has become entirely obsolete; see *Note 2*, under 1. a, above.

CONJUNCTIONS USED AS CO-ORDINATE OR SUBORDINATE.

240. The following conjunctions may introduce either co-ordinate or subordinate propositions: darum (early N.H.G.; 1 Thess. iii. 5; now obsolete as a subordinate conjunction) therefore, since; da then, when; insoweit, insofern thus far, so far as, insofern, indes, unterdessen, unterdes, inzwischen in the meantime, while; trotzdem nevertheless, in spite of the fact that; seitdem since, nun now, now that, so so (which though usually an adverbial conjunction is also a subordinate conjunction in concessive clauses (see 238. 3. G), widrigenfalls otherwise, sonst or ansonst (now little used) *else, otherwise*, both usually with inverted word-order; and the compound forms mentioned in 239. 1. c: Er war krank; trotzdem ging er aus. Trotzdem er krank war, ging er aus. Du hast dir Mühe gegeben, insofern kann ich dich loben. Insofern du dir Mühe gegeben hast, kann ich dich loben. Du hast mir das versprochen; nun mußt du Wort halten. Nun du das versprochen hast, mußt du Wort halten. Bezahle mich jetzt; widrigenfalls muß ich dich verklagen. Van der Straaten, der es hörte, verbat sich alle derartig intrinsischen Wortspielereien, widrigenfalls er an die Brant telegraphieren werde (Fontane's *L'Adultera*, chap. viii). Gib dem Kinde das Spielzeug, sonst fängt es an zu weinen. Die kleinen Leiden mit der aufdringlichen Krupule und was damit zusammenhängt, gehen auch bei mir immer fort, allein es lehnt am Ende nicht der Mühe, lange davon zu sprechen, ansonst man ja doppelte Beschwernis hat (G. Keller an T. Storm, 5. Juni 1882).

a. The above small list of conjunctions, once, however, large, still illustrates very nicely the origin of most subordinate conjunctions, which were originally modifiers of the principal proposition. Thus Ich sehe, daß (the same word as the demonstrative das nom. and acc., from which it is first distinguished in orthography in the middle of the 16th century) er zufrieden ist originated in Ich sehe das: er ist zufrieden. Thus also Ich tue es nicht, ohne daß ich Ihre Erlaubnis habe originated in Ich tue es nicht ohne das: ich habe Ihre Erlaubnis. In both examples das is acc. neut., but later when it passed over into the subordinate clause the distinct feeling of its case passed away, and it, in a number of conjunctions, passed as a connective without inflection, the form daß, later daß, standing even after a prep. governing some other case than the acc., as in außer daß *except*, während daß *while*, anstatt daß *instead*, or after a verb which governs the gen.: Ich erinnere mich nicht, daß ich dies gesagt habe. In other conjunctions the proper case of the original demonstrative still stands, as in nachdem *after*, seitdem *since*, indem *while*. In the list given above the conjunctions can still stand either in the principal or subordinate proposition, while most of the subordinate conjunctions now are restricted to the subordinate, although they too once stood in the principal proposition.

In the same manner the demonstratives *der, die, das* were moved from the principal to the subordinate proposition, and became what is now called the relative pronoun. Even as late as early N.H.G. we find sentences in which the demon. stands as a word common to both clauses, but still with the case that belongs to it according to its function in the principal proposition: *Mit all dem ich kann und vermag* (Hans Sachs). Later, the demon. passed as a relative pronoun over to the subordinate clause, and took the case that was required of it according to its function in the subordinate clause.

INTERJECTIONS.

241. An interjection is a single particle, or some other part of speech used as such, or a combination of particles, or a fragment of a sentence used to give vent to some sudden outburst of feeling or passion, or to give expression to some intimation of will, or on the other hand to imitate some sound in nature. In order to facilitate an understanding of the more idiomatic, illustrative sentences are given under the several words. A few of the most common or most difficult here follow in alphabetical order, others must be looked for in the dictionary:

aber nein! expressing surprise.
ach! expressing pain, anger, regret, displeasure.
ah! expressing joy, admiration, surprise.
also doch! Well, I never should have expected that!
ätsch or *eitsch!* teasing, expression of joy at the loss or discomfiture of another.
au! expression of physical pain.
baug! imitating a falling body: *Baug, da liegt er!*
beiseibe nicht = um Gottes willen nicht!
kein Wein! (colloq.) not at all!
bewahre! by no means!
nein, ich bitte Sie! expressing surprise.
brrr! whoa! (to stop a horse).
bum! imitating a falling body: *Bum, da liegt er!*
balli (colloq.) = *flinf!* quick!
i du meine Güte! good gracious!
holterdipolter, a heavy, dull noise: *Das ging holterdipolter* (in great haste and noisily).
hoppa, or *hoppfa*, or *hoppfassa!* excl. when some one stumbles or lets something fall.
hur-ra! (or *hurra*) hurrah! *hurra hoch!*
hip, hip, hip, hurrah!
husch! expression of rapidity: *Husch! fort war der Vogel.*
keine Idee, or kein Gedanke! not at all!
i wo! by no means!
juchhe! or *juchhei!* heigh-ho! hurrah!
kladderatsch, imitating a falling body.
knack! imitating the breaking of some

brittle substance: *Knack, sagte es, da war der Henkel an der Tasse abgebrochen.*
ja Kuck! (colloq.) It's all imagination!
man ja nicht! in no case!
na! unusually frequent, expressing surprise, displeasure, an urgent admonition to do something desired by the speaker, or encouraging words to some one to proceed: *Wer kommt mit? Na* (surprise)? *Keiner?* (What! no one?) *Na, das sehste noch!* Well! That caps the climax! *Na, verwärts!* Often used when the speaker thinks that something confirms, or soon will confirm his ideas, words: *Na, das sagte ich Ihnen ja gleich!* Used when one forms unwillingly a resolution which he cannot well avoid: *Na, ich will denn nur weiter gehen.* To express doubt as to the outcome: *Na, na, wenn es nur gut ausläuft!* A warning: *Na, na, na, nicht so hitzig!* Sharp rebuke: *na, na!* Appeasingly: *Na, na, es war nicht böse gemeint!*
nanu, strengthened *na*, expressing surprise, pity, indignation, disappointment, impatience: *Nanu, was bedeutet denn das?*
na ob or *und ob!* in responses = well, I should think so! rather!
nē, very frequent = *nein*.
o! oh! O! oh!
pfui! for shame! shame on you!
ps! or *sch!* sh! hush!
schwups, expressing suddenness: *Schwups! hatte er eine Ohrfeige.*

Note. As *bitte!* short for *ich bitte I beg*, is usually used with some expression understood, the suppressed words being easy to supply from the connection and in the spoken language from the tone of voice or gesture, it often has varied meanings: *bitte!* please! *Bitte um Verzeihung!* Beg your pardon! *Bitte, bitte!* Please, do it! *Bitte!* Please let me pass. *Bitte!* Please enter this room! *Bitte, das bleibt mein Geheimniß.* Please don't inquire, that's my secret. *Bitte!* What did you say? *Nein, ich bitte Sie!* Well, I declare! (expression of surprise). *Bitte!* Don't mention it (answer to one returning thanks for a favor). *Bitte sehr I beg your pardon*, used to introduce politely something contradicting that which has just been stated by the person addressed.

PART III

WORD-FORMATION.

242. Words are divided with reference to their formation into three classes: Primitives, Derivatives, and Compounds.

PRIMITIVES.

243. The most primitive element of a word is the root. The exact form of the original roots cannot be ascertained. They may have consisted of one, two, or more syllables, but usually appear to-day in a reduced monosyllabic form which may be styled the stem. To this stem the inflectional endings are added, and from it new words may be formed by the addition of prefixes or suffixes. These new words thus formed may in turn become the stems from which by the addition of other suffixes still other words may be formed. Words which spring up directly from the root syllable without the addition of other suffixes than the usual inflectional endings, and which are themselves the stem from which other words by the aid of suffixes spring, are called primitives. The strong verbs of the present and past periods of the language form the primitive stems from which a large number of German words have sprung. In these primitives it is the consonants that give consistency to the roots, for the root vowels themselves differ in the different tenses: *singen, sang, gesungen*. This difference of vowel, called gradation, is due to a difference of accent in an earlier period; see **197. A**. It is no longer possible to tell what the original root-vowel was. Thus the original root has thrown up different stems which have become remarkably fruitful. The different classes of the gradating verbs are treated in articles **198–205**. The numerous nouns and adjectives which have been formed from the same roots as these strong verbs are, like the verbal stems themselves, in direct association with the root and are also true primitives. Usually, however, such nouns and adjectives are associated directly with strong verbs, as the original roots cannot be ascertained, and the strong verbs are the oldest related forms which can shed light on their real meaning. For fuller explanation of this point, see **197. a. Note**. As certain primitive nouns and adjectives have the same gradation as the related strong verbs, they have been treated in detail under the different gradation classes (beginning at art. **198**) rather than here. A number of primitive nouns and adjectives have no relation to any existing strong verb, but can be traced back to verbs found in earlier

periods of German or some older related language. Some primitives, however, cannot thus be traced back to verbal forms. Also a number of weak verbs must be regarded as primitives.

a. Next in nature to these primitives are those derivatives with endings that have no appreciable meaning. Such are the substantives formed by adding *e*, *be*, *te*, *b*, *dt*, *ft*, *t*, or *tt* to a primitive stem, and adjectives in *el*, *er*, *en*, *t*: *Grube* ditch, *Stand* condition, *Stadt* city, *Grust* tomb, *eitel* vain, *bitter* bitter, *eben* level, *dicht* close.

Note. Such words have a change of *b* to *f* and *g* or *h* to *ch* before the suffix *t*: *treiben* to drive—*Trift* pasture, *schlagen* to strike—*Schlacht* battle, *geschehen* to happen—*Geschichte* history. See also 40. 1. b. *Note* 1. After *-l* and *-n* we often find *ft*, and after *-m* the ending *ft* instead of simple *t*: *Geschwulst* swelling, from *schwellen* to swell; *Gunst* from *gönnen*, *Kunst* from *können*, *Gespinnst* (spinnen); *Ankunft* from *ankommen*, *Vernunft* from *vernehmen*.

DERIVATIVES.

244. Derivatives are formed by adding or prefixing to a simple word a syllable that has an appreciable force and thus influences the meaning of the word: *ton* accent, *tonlos* unaccented. To such a derivative still other suffixes can be added: *tonlosigkeit* absence of accent.

Note. In student slang there is a tendency to form for comical effect hybrid derivatives, consisting of a German word and a foreign suffix: *Pfiffikus* sly-boots, *gassatim* or *gassatum* (gehen to rove) about the streets at night, *schäuderös* terrible, *Kneipier* (*knaipjē*) host, keeper of a beer-hall, &c. A number of hybrids, however, from their frequent use have become naturalized, the accent alone indicating their foreign origin, especially those in *-ge*, *al'*, *ei'*, *ia'de*, *ie'ren* (verbal suffix), *is'mus*, *ist'*, *lei'*, *ös'*: *Tafel-ge*, *Putteral'*, *Jäger-er*, *Hanswurstia'de*, *hausie'ren*, *Berlinis'mus*, *Blumist'*, *allerlei'*, *statiös'* (slang) pretty, elegant. The strong foreign influences at work in former periods can still be seen even in certain names derived from German cities and states, especially nouns in *-ner*, *en'ser*, *i'ner*: *Weimara'ner*, *Baden'ser*, *Anhalti'ner*, &c., inhabitants of Weimar, Baden, Anhalt, &c. In popular language these words usually have a German ending: *Weimarsche*, *Badener*, *Anhaltsche*, &c. Scholars now recommend the use of the forms in *-er*: *Weimarer*, *Badener*, *Anhalter*, &c., sometimes also in foreign names, *Athe'ner* instead of *Athenien'ser*.

FORMATION OF WORDS BY MEANS OF SUFFIXES.

I. Derivative Substantives.

245. 1. A. e (from O.H.G. *i*, hence producing mutation), *heit* (cognate with *hood*, as in *falsehood*), *feit* (corrupted form of O.H.G. *ic[k]heit*, hence another form of *heit*), which form abstract feminine substantives. Those in *-e* may be formed from adjectives, and those in *heit* from adjectives, perfect participles, present infinitives, and nouns: *Güte* kindness, *Härte* cruelty, *Liebe* love, *Freiheit* freedom, *Dummheit* stupidity, *Ergebenheit* devotion, *Allwissenheit* omniscience, *Kindheit* childhood. Grammarians who claim that *Bedeutendheit* (or also *Bedeutendheit*) is the only case where *heit* is added to a present participle are not in accord with the facts of the language: *Treffend-*

heit des Ausdrucks (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, II, chap. 2). Sie sind einer gewissen Unausreichendheit begegnet (ib., *Stechlin*, chap. 4, p. 48). The *-heit* may be added to adjectives, and hence also to adjective participles.

Those in *-heit* are chiefly formed from derivative adjectives in *-bar*, *-el*, *-er*, *-ig*, *-lich*, *-sam*: *Heiligkeit*, &c. Nouns formed from adjectives in *-los* and *-haft*, and from certain monosyllabic adjectives, add the lengthened form *-igkeit*: *Ehrlosigkeit*, *Ehrenhaftigkeit*, *Seichtigkeit*, &c.

a. The forms in *-e* and (*ig*)*heit* often take on concrete meaning: *Höhe* hill, height, *Tiefe* the deep, *Süßigkeit* something sweet.

b. Sometimes *-e* and *-heit*, or *-eit* and *-heit*, stand in contrast with each other, the former representing something concrete, the latter something abstract: *Ebene* level, plain, *Ebenheit* levelness; *Neuigkeit* something new, piece of news, *Neuheit* newness; *Süßigkeit* something sweet, *Süße* and *Süßheit* sweetness. These three suffixes have the same general force, but when they are affixed to the same stem a little different shade of meaning usually develops, as plainly as in the preceding examples or in finer shades of abstract meaning. See 13. 2, below. In earlier periods of the language *e* (O.H.G. *i*) was used much more frequently than now. It has been in many cases replaced by *heit* and also by *ung* and *nis*. In early N.H.G. we still frequently find words in *e* which are now replaced by other suffixes: *Die Gleiche* (now *Gleichheit* or *Ähnlichkeit*), *Schöne* (now *Schönheit*), &c. These words in *e*, however, have found favor with poets: *Wir tragen | die Trümmern ins Nichts hinüber, | und klagen über die verlorne Schöne* (Goethe's *Faust*, 1613-16).

c. The suffix *-heit* and its corrupted form *-eit*, both of the same origin as our *hood* and *head* (in manhood, Godhead), represent a once independent noun with the meaning of *condition*, *kind*, which accounts for the meaning of these suffixes to-day, and sometimes leads to the use of *heit* to express a collective idea: *Gesundheit* health, lit. healthy condition, *Menschheit* human race, mankind, *Christenheit* the Christian world.

d. Not all the feminine words in *-e* are of the same origin as those described above. These other words in *-e* distinguish themselves by their lack of mutation in many cases and also by their concrete meaning: *die Flüsse* (O.H.G. *flozza*) *fin*, *Grube* (O.H.G. *gruoba*) *pit*, &c.

B. There is another *e* (Gothic *a(n)* and *ja(n)*, the latter of which has left its imprint in the mutation of the preceding vowel), which forms weak masc. nouns denoting persons or other living beings: *Bote* messenger, *Bürge* bondsman, *Erbe* heir, *Gefährte* companion, *Gefelle* fellow, comrade, *Schütze* marksman, *Hase* hare, &c. Some have lost the distinguishing suffixal ending in the nom.: *Schultheiß* (gen. *des Schultheißen*), *Herr* (gen. *des Herrn*), &c. In many words *-e* has been replaced by the foreign suffix *-er* (see 5, below), which is a great favorite: (Gothic *fiskja*, (O.H.G.) *fiscari*, (N.H.G.) *Fischer*, &c. Formerly *-e* was also found in many weak masc. nouns denoting lifeless things, of which a few traces are left: *Name*, &c. For the history of these nouns denoting things see 67, 2nd paragraph.

In older periods three suffixes were much used to denote living beings, namely *=e*, *=el*, and *=er*, each of which was a live force in the language. Of these *=er* has been gradually replacing the other two. The suffix *=el* is now least common, and its former meaning is no longer vividly felt. The *=e* is best preserved in names of peoples, where it competes with *=er*: *Preuße*, *Russe*, &c., but *Engländer*, *Spanier*, &c.

2. Accented *ei*, *ie*, and unaccented *ien*, different forms of the same foreign suffix, from which are made abstract and concrete substantives. The M.H.G. form was *ie*, which in N.H.G. passed over into *ei*. Later, especially in foreign nouns, the French form was restored to some of the words: *Theori* (Klopstock, Gellert), now *Theorie*. In a few cases both suffixes remain: *Melodie* or sometimes in poetry for sake of a rhyme *Melodei*. In one word differentiation of meaning has taken place: *Partei*, party, faction; *Partie* parcel, match (in matrimony), game, party, picnic.

The suffix *=ei* does not usually mutate the stem vowel. However, as a number of the derivatives to which it is added already have a mutated vowel, as in the case of *Färber*, *tändeln*, &c., mutation has in several instances spread by analogy: *Samerei*, *Büberei*, *Anbäuchtelei*, &c.

The following general points with regard to their use may be of service:

1. The form *ei* is found:

a. Affixed to derivatives in *=er*, which denote persons engaged in a certain business or occupation. Here the *ei* denotes the idea of a trade, business, art, profession, or an act or state of the class of people in question: *Färberei* the dyeing business, *Gerberei* the tanning business, *Verrätherei* treachery, *Überläuferei* desertion. These words often take on concrete meaning, and then denote the building where the business is carried on: *Färberei* dyeing establishment, *Druckerei* printing-house, *Bäckerei* bakery, &c.

Note. The suffix *ei* is, after the analogy of the above words in *=er*, sometimes added to the plurals in *=er*, as *Kinderei* childishness, *Abgöttereie* idolatry, &c. This frequent reoccurrence of *ei* after *=er* has led to the erroneous idea that the suffix is *=erei*: *Büberei* knavery, *Schurkereie* rascality, *Sklaverei* slavery, *Psafferei* or *Psäfferei*, &c. In a few cases only is *=ei* added directly to the stem: *Abtei* abbey, *Dechantei* deanery, *Pfarrei* parish, parsonage, *Propstei* provost's residence or office, *Regtei* prefecture, *Marrei* (early N.H.G.) or now *Marretei* *tomfoolery*, which has resulted from the mingling of the older *Marrei* with *Marrenteibing* or *Marrenteidung* (*Faust*, I. 5798). However, in student slang *ei* is still (not so much though as formerly) in some university towns added to the name of a family, to indicate a house where students live: *Schiller wohnte zu Jena in einer Schrammei und Hoffmann von Fallersleben in einer Knabeie*. Also the beer-halls where the different academic societies meet take this suffix: *die Beckei*, *Oppelei*, &c.

b. Affixed to verbs, to denote the abstract idea of repetition or prolongation of the activity expressed by the verb: *eine große Graberei* (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. 26) extensive excavations, *Plaferei* pestering, *Plauderei* chatting, chat, *Neckerei* teasing, *Tändelei* toying.

Note. Only *ei* is added to stems in *el* and *er*, but monosyllabic stems affix *erei*: *Biererei* affectation from *sich bieren*. The noun *Andächtelei* (see *d*, below) *false devotion* affixes *erei* after the analogy of the verbs in *eln*.

c. Sometimes *ei* has collective force: *Reiterei* cavalry, *Bücherei* library, *die ganze Treibelei* (Fontane) the whole family or tribe of the Treibels.

Sometimes we find in *el* the combined force of *c* and *d*: *Diese Treibelei war ein Irrtum* (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, XVI) This whole Treibel business (striving to get into the Treibel family by marriage) was a mistake.

If the stem of the word does not end in *el* or *er*, the suffix here is *erei*: *die ganze Felgentreuerei* (Fontane) the whole Felgentreu family.

d. In the uses *a* and *b* and sometimes *c*, the *ei* very often has a disparaging force: *Juristerei* business of a pettifogger, *Lauferei* much unpleasant running about, *Leserei* indiscriminate reading, *Reimerei* poem without poetic merit containing jingling rhymes, *Ausländerei* predilection for everything foreign, affectation of foreign manners, *Engländerei* Anglomania. Und daß das Mädel bei dieser ewigen Warterei vielleicht um die schönsten Partien kommt, das kummert Sie wohl gar nicht? (Beyerlein's *Dämon Othello*, 1, 8). The *Ge* — *e* (see 83. *b*) formations have a somewhat similar meaning, but more distinctly abstract and verbal force, and cannot be used in the plural, as can those in *ei*, as in *Zu allem, was er sonst . . . auf sich genommen, nun auch noch die Komiteestellungen wegen des Kirchenbasars und die Laufereien von einem zum andern, um eine allgemeine Beteiligung der gebildeten Kreise zuwege zu bringen* (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, XI).

e. In a few geographical terms; see 3, below.

2. The form *ie* is used mostly in foreign words, especially in a number of scientific and geographical terms: *Theologie*, *Geographie*, *Geologie*, *Picardie*, *Normandie*, &c. Also in the arts: *Stenographie*, *Lithographie*, *Photographie*, &c.

3. The form *ien* is found in a number of geographical terms: *Spanien* (pro. *Span'jen*), *Ital'ien*, *Sizil'ien*, &c., but *Picardie'*, *Normandie'*, &c. These foreign names in *ien* have been conformed to the German model *Preußen* Prussia, &c., the *ie* becoming *ien*. In a few geographical names the form is *ei*: *Türkei*, *Lombardei*, *Walachei*, *Mandschurei*, *Mongolei*.

3. *el*, masc., less commonly fem. and neut. suffix, denoting on the one hand an instrument, implement, a belonging to, on the other hand a person or other living being: *der Hebel* lever, *Meißel* chisel, *Stempel* stamp, pestle, *Spiegel* mirror, *Ärmel* sleeve, *die Geißel* scourge, *Angel* (formerly also masc.) hook, *Trommel* drum, &c.; *der Büttel* beadle, sheriff's officer, *Krüppel* cripple, *Schlingel* rascal, *Tölpel* dunce, *Lummel* lubber, *Pudel* poodle, *die* (now less commonly *der*) *Geißel* hostage, *das* (less commonly *der*) *Wiesel* weasel, &c. For important additional matter see 1. B, above, 2nd paragraph.

Note. The *el* of these words represents O.H.G. *il*, *al*, *ul*, of which *il* has left its imprint in the mutated vowel of the stem. The *el* is frequently in case of strong verbs affixed to the stem of the past, in other cases to the present stem: *Flügel* wing, from

fliegen to fly; Schlüssel key, from schließen to lock; Sessel easy-chair — sitzen; Bügel rein — ziehen; Griffel slate-pencil — greifen; Schlegel mallet — schlagen; Löffel (corrupted N.H.G. form of M.H.G. Löffel) spoon — O.H.G. laffan, to lick, lap.

4. **en** or sometimes only **e** or even disappearing entirely, usually a masc. suffix, less commonly neut. It is of different origin in different words, and has to-day no appreciable meaning. It is used in words which denote:

- a. An instrument: Spaten spade, Bogen bow, Hafen, hook, &c.
- b. A place for storing or securing something: Laden store, Schuppen shed, Hafen harbor, &c.
- c. A part of the body: Magen stomach, Rücken back, Daumen thumb, &c.
- d. An abstract idea in a few cases: Glaube(n) faith, Friede(n) peace, Schreck or Schrecken fright.

e. Various other things: Same or Samen seed, Ost or Osten east, &c.

5. **er** (O.H.G. āri, from Latin ārius = English er, as in baker), masc. suffix, used to form appellations of male beings. Compare 1. B, 2nd paragraph. Mutation of the stem vowel is the rule when the suffix is added directly to the stem-word, but there are some exceptions: Bäcker &c.; Dampfer, Frager, Maler, &c. When **er** is preceded by another suffix mutation is not so common, perhaps, as non-mutation: Stamm(e)ler, &c., but also Pförtner, &c. The leading points as to use are as follows:

a. Affixed to substantives it indicates that the person either manufactures the article or thing named in the stem of the substantive or is associated with it in a business or professional way: Hafner potter, Gärtner gardner, Säger singer, Schauspieler actor (on the stage).

b. Affixed to verbal stems it indicates either that the person is temporarily engaged in the activity expressed in the verbal stem, or is engaged therein in a business or professional way: Der Leser the reader, Bettler beggar, Schneider tailor, &c. It is also used of animals: Weidenbohrer caterpillar of the goat-moth, &c.

Note. After the analogy of the numerous derivatives from stems in **el** and **en** in *a* and *b*, above, as Bettler beggar and Hafner potter, the suffix **er** is lengthened to **ler** and **ner** in a large number of words with stems not ending in **el**, **en**: Dörfler (now more common than the older form Dörfser) villager from Dorf, Gegenfüßler antipode, Hinterwäldler backwoodsman, Kriegerveinler (Raabe's *Villa Schonow*, v) member of a club of veteran soldiers, Künstler artist, Naturwissenschaftler scientist, Neusprachler one who devotes himself to the scientific study of modern languages, Radler cyclist, Sommerfrischler visitor at a summer resort, Tischler joiner, &c.; Glöckner bell-ringer from Glocke, Harfner harpist, &c. Lügner liar does not belong here, as it is derived from the older form Lügen (still in use in early N.H.G.), now Lüge. There is no disparaging sense in **ler**, as is sometimes claimed. If such force exists it lies in the meaning of the stem word, as in Buchthäusler (convict) — Buchthaus (penitentiary) + **ler**.

c. Figuratively **er** is often applied to names of lifeless objects: Wecker alarm clock, Wehrer gimlet.

d. It forms a few masculines corresponding to feminines in **e**: Kater tom-cat — Kätze cat, Tauber or Täuber male pigeon — Taube pigeon, Witwer widower — Witwe widow.

e. Affixed to names of cities, countries, and continents, it indicates a resident or subject of the place in question: Römer Roman, Isländer Irishman, Europäer inhabitant of Europe.

Note 1. There is, however, much irregularity in forming such nouns from names of countries, and often there is no mutation. Foreign names in *ien* drop *n* and add *r*, as Gallier inhabitant of Gaul (Gallien), Spanier inhabitant of Spain (Spanien), but exceptionally Italiener (pro. itali'ner). In some other foreign names the endings *a'ner*, *i'ner*, *en'ner* are added to the stem in imitation of the Latin endings *anus*, *inus*, *ensis*: Amerika'ner American, Florenti'ner Florentine, Athenien'ser Athenian. See also 244. *Note*, towards end. In many other names the words end in *e*, and are inflected weak: Preuße Prussian, Pole Pole, &c.

Note 2. In popular language *-er* and *-erin* are often replaced by *isch*. The *isch* is added to the stem, and the word is then inflected as an adjective: der Spanische instead of der Spanier, die Spanische instead of die Spanierin, &c.

f. In a number of foreign words accented *-ier* (pro. *ir*) and *-eur* (pro. *ör*) are found instead of *-er*: Offizier' officer, Juwelier' jeweler, Redakteur' editor. In a few words the German suffix has been added to the foreign *ier*: Kassier'er or less commonly Kassier' cashier, Tapezier'er or Tapezier' paper-hanger. The *-er* indicates that the noun has been brought into relation to the corresponding German form of the verb: kassieren, tapezieren. In a few cases only has the French pronunciation of the prefix been retained, as in Portier (pro. *port=je'*) door-keeper, Bankier banker, &c. In some foreign words *or* (unaccented in the sing. and accented in the pl.) corresponds to German *er*: der Profess'ör professor, pl. Profess'oren.

6. 1. in (usually causing mutation), fem. suffix, used to form fem. from masc. appellations denoting a rank, dignity, occupation: Gräfin countess, Graf count; Pfarrerin pastor's wife. For use with titles, see 92. 6.

a. Words ending in *e* drop it before adding *in*, as in Franzö'sin French lady, from Franzö'se. Words ending in *erer* may drop one of the *er*'s before adding *in*, as in Zauberin sorceress, from Zauberer.

b. In popular language *in* is often weakened to *en* or *n*: die Buchholzen Mrs. Buchholz, die Frau Junkern Mrs. Junker. See 92. 6.

2. Most appellations of male persons have corresponding forms for female persons, only a few words as Gast *guest* and most nouns in *-ling* have the same form for both genders: Kaiser emperor, Kaiserin empress; Lehrer teacher, Lehrerin lady teacher. But Sie ist unser Gast. Sie ist der Liebling aller. In the use of the feminine form the German goes very much further than the English. See, however, 253. III. 2. *a* for other exceptions to the rule.

7. ing (related to *ung* in 14. 1, below), now commonly written **ling** (cognate with Eng. *ling*, as in *sapling*), except in the cases mentioned in *a* and *b*, usually a masc. suffix whether it be applied to males or females, sometimes, however, in the form *lingin* with reference to the latter, as die britische Zünglingin (Raabe's *Pechlin*, II, chap. 11), usually causing mutation if affixed directly to the stem. It is affixed to nouns, verbs, adjectives, and in a few cases to other parts of speech, to form designations of persons or other living beings, less commonly of things, with the meaning of origin, intimate relation, or association: Sämpling that

which comes from the seed, seedling, *Hauptling* one who serves as the head, chieftain, *Günstling* one who receives favors, favorite, *Peinling* (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, p. 204) one who gives, causes pain, pedant, *Lüstling* one who seeks the gratification of his senses, sensualist, *Gründling*, groundling (a kind of fish that stays upon the bottom of a body of water), *Hänfing* a bird that feeds upon hemp-seed, linnet, *Häufing* mitten, *Häftling* prisoner; derivatives from verbs sometimes with active, sometimes with passive force, as *Einbringling* *intruder*, lit. *one who intrudes*, *Sträfling* *convict*, lit. *one who is being punished*; *Frühling* spring, *Neuling* novice, *Finsterling* a friend of darkness and ignorance, obscurant. The idea of *origin*, *descent from*, or *association with* may come from that of *littleness* and the derived ideas of *youth*, *dependency*, *recency*, which meanings still occur: *Setzling* small rooted plant for setting out, young fish to be put into a pond for the purpose of propagation, *Schößling* shoot, *Säugling* suckling, *Nestling* young bird, *Däumling* hop-o'-my-thumb, *Pflegling* ward, *Schützling* protégé, *Zögling* pupil, *Lehrling* apprentice, *Unfömming* new-comer, &c. In dialect this idea of littleness is still quite commonly associated with *-ing*; see 8. i. f, below. Also in the literary language the diminutive force in *-ling* is so strongly felt that an additional diminutive suffix is rarely added. In Old Norse and in modern English this suffix still has in a number of cases pure diminutive force, and the same is true of the corresponding Latin and Greek *k*-suffix. Others, however, regard the idea of association which is now the most common meaning of *-ling* as the original one from which the other meanings have been derived.

A number of words in *-ling* have a depreciatory meaning: *Mietling* hireling, *Einbringling* intruder, &c. This *-ling*, from association with such words as have in themselves a depreciatory meaning or from the general idea of dependency developed in the suffix, often assumes depreciatory force and has become productive especially in this sense: *Höfling* courtier, *Dichterling* poetaster, *Günstling* one supported by the favor of a king, lord, &c., *Wislung*, would-be-wit, *Emporkömmling* upstart, parvenu, *Einseitling* (H. Seidel's *Lang lang ist's her*) one-sided, narrow-minded person, &c. Sometimes in a milder, humorous sense: *Feistling* (Raabe's *Stopfkuchen*, p. 129) fat fellow, 'fatty.'

a. The idea of origin can be more clearly seen in proper nouns. Many S.G. family names end in *-ing*, as *Henning*, *Grüning*. In the North corresponding to these names in *-ing* are names in *-s* or *-sen*: *Übers* (gen.) = *Übers Sohn*, *Janssen* = *Jahns Sohn*. Also many names of places in the South are derived from these family names, usually ending in *-ingen*, the *m* being the dat. pl. ending after the prep. *zu* understood: *Tübingen* city of *Tübingen*, &c.; see 88. i. In case of certain ruling families *er* is added to *-ing*: *Karolinger* descendant of *Karl der Große*, *Carlovingian*, &c. This is a survival of older usage, which employed here *lunger* interchangeably with *-ing*. Luther still uses both *Frembling* and *Fremblingen* (Luke xvii. 18).

b. The earlier form of the suffix was *-ing*. As it very commonly stood after *al*, *il*, *ul*, the preceding *l* became associated with it, and finally the lengthened form *-ling* supplanted it in most words. The few existing forms in *-ing* are

thus older, and the force of the suffix is not now vividly felt: *ſering* herring, so called because these fish move in great armies (*ſeere*) or schools, *Büding* or *Büding* bocking (fish), &c. The particular group in *a*, however, always take *-ing*.

As the form *-ling* is added to many words in *-er*, the suffix has from analogy assumed the form *-erling* in a few words: *Heiderling*, *Windling* or *Winderling*, &c. For the form *-linger* see *a*, above.

8. 1. *lein* (O.H.G. *ilīn*) and ***chen*** (earlier *ichin*, cognate with Eng. *kin* as in *lambkin*), neuter diminutive suffixes affixed to nouns, usually causing mutation when they follow an accented syllable. The former is the original H.G. suffix, which in different dialectic forms is still used everywhere in the South in familiar language (see *f*, below). In the form of *lein* and *lin* (more common in his later writings) it was employed by Luther in his translation of the Bible and elsewhere as the more dignified form, in preference to the M.G. *-chen*, but it has only limited use to-day in the literary language and only in the form of *lein*, being largely confined to a beautiful style and a few common words with endings that are difficult to unite with *chen*, as *Büchlein*, *Fiſchlein*, &c. Modern authors, however, do not seem to regard a number of these combinations as harsh: *die Fiſchchen* (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 15). After stems in *ch* and *g* it is common to employ a double diminutive formed by adding *chen* to *-el* (the shortened form of *-lein*): *Büchelchen* booklet, *ſächelchen* little matter, pretty little thing, *gimcrack*, *Wägelchen* little wagon.

In the eighteenth century the Middle German suffix *-chen* replaced *-lein* in the language of the prose writers Lessing, Wieland, Herder, and others who had taken the Upper Saxon dialect as their standard. Gradually *-chen* became established in the literary language in general and the familiar language of the North in particular, while under the influence of the poets Goethe, Bürger, Voss, and others *-lein* secured a permanent place of honor in poetry.

a. If a word ends in *e*, *el*, or *en*, these endings are often dropped before adding the diminutive suffix: *Bübchen* from *Bube*; *Näglein* from *Nagel*, but *Nägelchen*; *Gärtchen* from *Garten*, &c.

b. The diminutive endings are usually added to the sing., but may in familiar language be affixed to plurals in *-er*, and also to the plural form *Leute* *people*: *Das Kindchen*, pl. *die Kindchen* or *Kinderchen* (see 73. *a*), *Leutchen* "*small fry*," *good people*, people spoken of slightly or in a tone of friendly familiarity.

c. The mutation is often dropped, especially when the suffix expresses irony, and in case of proper names where the suffix has more the force of endearment than littleness (see 2, below): *Ich habe dies Jahr einen Reggen und Weizen, überhaupt ein Kornchen* (= ein prachtvolles Korn *a splendid crop of grain*) *gebaut wie noch nie. Dann kam auch noch ein kleines Schlaganfallchen!* (Sudermann's *Die Heimat*, I, 4) Then there came in addition a nice little (ironical) stroke of paralysis! By dropping mutation we may emphasize the idea of *largeness* or *efficacy*, while the use of mutation makes prominent the idea of *littleness*: *Der Physiolog spricht von Blutfögelchen, ein Jagdfreund aber spricht mit begeisterter Liebe von seinen nie fehlenden Kugelfchen. Vorläufig friert's und schneit's noch lustig weiter. Das gibt wieder ein Wasserchen* (Halbe's *Der Strom*, p. 20) *a great flood*. In the literary language it is the rule that the suffix does not

cause mutation if it follows an unaccented syllable: *Monatſchen, Hoffnungeſchen*, &c. Most of the exceptions to this rule occur after words in *el* and *er*: *Wögelſchen, Brüderſchen*, &c.

We say *Hänſel* (also *hanſel* — Rosegger), *Händchen, Händchen* (but also *Händchen* — Bismarck to Herr von Puttkamer, April 5, 1848), *Gränzchen, Nöſſchen*, but usually proper names remain unmutated: *Tonnerl, Eottchen, Karlchen*, &c.

The use of mutation varies a good deal: *Frauchen*, but *Gränlein*; *Onſelchen*, but *Väterchen, Jüngchen* (also *Jungchen* — Sudermann's *Der Sturmgeſelle Sokrates*, 3, 3) or *Jüngelſchen*; *Tantchen*, but *Wäſchen, Mütterchen* (also *Mutterchen* — Sudermann's *D. S. S.*, 1, 17; *Schwiegermutterchen* — Hauptmann's *Friedensfeſt*, p. 59), &c.

d. Sometimes the diminutives are fem. according to the natural sex instead of neut. according to grammatical gender: *die* (or *daß*) *Greichen* little Margaret. See 263. I. 1. 2. 3. 4.

e. These prefixes are usually affixed to nouns only, but in familiar language can be added on to the case ending or the stem of an adjective used as a noun, and also to other parts of speech: *Alterchen* or *Altchen* dear old fellow, *mein liebes Dickerchen* (Raabe) my dear fat friend, *Geduldchen* (noun used as an imperative)! Just have a little patience! *Ich will mich ſachtchen in mein Bettchen ſiehlen* (Goethe). *Warting* (see *f*) *noch*! Wait a moment! *Die jungen Mädchen, die ſind ja hier ſo feining gezogen* (M. Dreyer's *In Behandlung*, 1). In verbs the form *l* is very common: *lächeln* to smile, from *laſchen* to laugh, &c.; see III. 2, below.

f. In dialect these suffixes assume various forms: *el, 'l, erl* in Austria, as in *Büſel* boy, *jedes Aberl* every fiber, *Binderl* (with lengthened stem, after the analogy of many words ending in *er*) necktie; in Switzerland and in part in Bavaria *i* and *li*, as in *Geppi Joseph, Madli* = *Mädchen*; *le* in Württemberg, as in *Kindle*; *le* or *la* (pl. *lich*) in Franconia, as in *Liſchle*, pl. *Liſchlich*; in the North *ſe, eſe, ſen*, as in *Mäſen* = *Mädchen*. In Mecklenburg and Pomerania *ing* (see 7, above) is still used in its original meaning as a diminutive: *Kinning* = *Kindchen*, *Hänning* = *Händchen*, *Mutting* = *Mütterchen*. Writers from the *ing*-section have introduced this diminutive into literature: *Was dir eigentlich fehlt, mein Lechting, das weiß ich ganz genau*! (M. Dreyer's *Winterschlaf*, 1). This suffix in the form of *-ling*, as in *gosling*, has diminutive force also in English.

Note 1. The Austrian and Swiss dialects are especially inclined to the use of diminutive endings, which in consequence of their frequent use naturally lose somewhat of their force. Hence some words, as *Hörn* (= *Hörnlein*), &c., are often found with diminutive ending, whether the reference is to something small or large, beautiful or ugly.

Note 2. In some dialects, as in Rhine-Frankish, the plural of *-chen* becomes *-cher*, the *-cher* being added directly to the simple stem or to a lengthened form, made by adding *er*: *die Lämmcher* or *Lämmcher* = *die Lämmchen*. Also nouns whose plurals do not end in *er* may add this *er* to the stem in the plural: *die Mädercher* = *Mädchen*.

2. These suffixes have not only diminutive force, but are also used to express the idea of endearment, tenderness, comeliness, neatness, something affording satisfaction and pleasure, as well as the idea of slyness, stealth, and lastly contempt. These ideas naturally grew up out of that of littleness. Here *lein* and *chen* often form somewhat different shades of meaning. In the literary language of the North *chen* has usually the idea of endearment, comeliness, sarcasm, contempt, slyness, pleasure, and even of largeness, as the diminutive is often used ironically, implying the opposite of what is actually asserted: *Frauchen* dear wife, *Papa'chen* dear Papa, *Hütchen* a pretty hat, *Käpſchen* an ornamental

little box or jewel casket, die jungen Herrchen the young gentlemen (sarcastic), ein Potentärchen an insignificant little potentate, ein hübsches Gummchen a nice little (meaning a big) sum of money. *Lein*, besides its use in beautiful poetic style, is also found sometimes in common style, be it prose or poetry, where it has more strictly than *then* the idea of littleness and more intensely the idea of contempt: ein Hündlein a little dog, but ein Hündchen a nice dog; das arme geschlagene Kaiserlein (a contemptuous reference to Napoleon in a poem appearing in 1813), feiste Pfäfflein (contempt.), das Produktlein modernen Aufklärichts (Spielhagen's *Was will das werden*, I, chap. viii) the product of modern sham enlightenment, &c. As *lein* is so little used in the North in plain prose, the simple idea of littleness is best expressed by placing the adj. *klein* before the noun. In South German authors the very opposite use of *lein* and *then* above mentioned may be found. *Leindenotes* something nice and large, and *then* something spoken of in a sense of disparagement and littleness: ein Siebenträuber! (Rosegger) a nice large bunch of seven cherries. Das letzte schätzbare Knechtchen, das er gehabt, hatte ihn schon seit einigen Wochen verlassen (G. Keller). Ein paar schlechte Kämmerchen (id.).

The two forms *then* and *lein* are in certain cases differently distributed, the one being used in connection with certain words, the other employed with others: We say Ohrläppchen, Zündhölzchen, Liebschen, ein bißchen, Bleib noch ein Stündchen bei mir, but Bäuerlein, Brunnlein, sein Scherflein beitragen, Sein Stündlein hat geschlagen. Sometimes differentiation takes place: Fräuchen *dear wife* and Fräulein Miss; Männlein and Weiblein of human beings, Männchen and Weibchen of animals.

In a large number of idiomatic figurative words and expressions which reveal a lively play of imagination or feeling, *only* the diminutive form of the noun is used: Gänsefüßchen quotation marks, Fräulein Miss, unmarried woman, Grübchen dimple, sein Schäfchen scheren to feather one's own nest, sein Mütchen an einem fühlen to vent one's anger upon a person, ins Äußchen lachen to laugh in one's sleeve, &c. In case of Fräulein, *then* is in colloquial language added to *lein* to bring out the diminutive force or to give expression to the idea of endearment, &c., as the original meaning of the *lein* is no longer vividly felt: Da auf dem Tisch, gnädiges Fräuleindchen (Sudermann's *Fritschen*, I).

9. *niss* (cognate with *ness* as in *goodness*; see 14. 2, below), earlier in the period also *nüss* (*nüss*) especially in S.G., a neut. and less commonly fem. (99. 2. *b* and 3. *c*) suffix, usually causing mutation, affixed to verbs (especially such as have prefixes), nouns and adjectives, to denote:

a. An act, performance, activity, function or something concrete which is represented as having active force: Gelöbniß vow, Wagniß daring deed, Besorgniß fear, concern, Ereigniß occurrence, Begräbniß funeral, Gedächtniß memory, Verständniß understanding, comprehension, Vermächtniß testament, legacy, Hinderniß hinderance, that which hinders, Ärgerniß that which gives offence.

b. That which is the result or object of the activity implied

in the verbal stem of the noun, or that which is at the same time the result of an action and yet is itself an active force: *Verzeichniß* catalogue, list, *Erzeugniß* product, *Ergebniß* result, *Bedürfniß* need, that which one needs, *Bündniß* alliance, that which is the result of union and at the same time has active binding force.

c. A condition or quality or something concrete which possesses the quality indicated by the stem of the word: *Finsterniß* darkness, *Fäulniß* rottenness, *Geheimniß* secret thing, a secret, *Bitterniß* bitter thing.

d. The place where the condition implied in the stem of the word is found: *Gefängniß* prison, lit. a place where one is caught, *Wildniß* wilderness.

10. 1. *-sal* or its more common weakened form *-sel* (O.H.G. *isal*), usually neut., but in a few cases fem. (99. 3. c), and also in a few cases masc. (99. 3. c), sometimes causing mutation. They are usually found after verbal stems, and only in several instances are affixed to nouns. These suffixes have in part a force similar to that of *-niß*, but differ often from it in that they have a more comprehensive and intensive force. They have usually an abstract meaning and contain a collective idea, implying that the activity expressed in the verbal stem is long continued, oft repeated, customary, or is extended over a considerable field, or is associated with a large number of objects. Sometimes they may take on concrete meaning, especially *-sel*. Nouns having these suffixes denote:

a. A thing which is represented as the subject, or the object, or result of the activity implied in the verbal stem of the noun: *Das Schicksal* that which sends, or is sent, hence *fate, destiny*, *der Stöpsel* that which stops, a *stopper*, *das* (also *der*) *Häcksel* that which is chopped, chopped feed, *das Füllsel* that which is filled in, stuffing, *das Rinnsal* that which has resulted from flowing water, a channel, watercourse, *das Labial* anything (as food, drink, encouragement, &c.) which refreshes body or mind.

b. A condition, state, or an action: *das Wirtsal* confusion, confused state, *die Trübsal* affliction, *die* and *das Mühsal* difficulty, misery, *das Irrsal* state of erring, erring course, erring, serious error (as in religious belief), which causes a train of errors. In these same words and others the meaning may sometimes become more concrete, indicating something that causes this condition or state, or the place where the condition is found or the action takes place: *das Mühsal* that which causes misery, *das Wehsal* that which causes serious trouble, sorrow, *das Schensal* that which instils fear and aversion, a monster, *das Irrsal* a place where one can easily err, a labyrinth.

c. *-Sel* often denotes something insignificant or contemptible: *das Überbleibsel* something left over, remnant, *das Geschreibsel* a miserably written production, *das Hervorbringel* inferior production. *Er schachert*, indem er für ein Mitbringel (insignificant acquisition) unsre Ehre preisgab (Fontane's *Schach von Wuthenow*, chap. 6).

2. In derivatives in *ig* formed from words in *-sal*, this suffix becomes *-sel*: *Wehsal* sorrow, but *wehselig* sorrowful. Sometimes the

original noun has gone out of use: *armſelig* *miserable*, from M.H.G. *armsal*, misery. This *ſelig* should not be confounded with the adj. *ſelig* in compounds such as *gottſelig* pious, *redſelig* talkative.

11. *ſchaft* (from *ſchaffen* to shape, create; cognate with Eng. *ship* as in *friendship*), once an independent noun, now a fem. suffix, affixed to the sing. or pl. of nouns, also to adjectives, participles, and verbs, to denote:

a. An act, activity: *Wanderſchaft* travelling, journeying, *Urheberſchaft* act of originating, authorship, *Täterſchaft* perpetration, *Rechenſchaft* account, *Wirtſchaft* management of a house, business or government, *Wiſſenſchaft* scientific study, *Herrſchaft* rule, authority, *Kaufmannſchaft* business of a merchant, *Gesandtſchaft* duties and position of an ambassador, embassy.

This suffix often assumes concrete meaning, denoting some person carrying on the activity or something which is associated with it or resulting from it: *die Herrſchaft* master or mistress or according to *c* both, *Wirtſchaft* restaurant, *Gesandtſchaft* dwelling or office of an ambassador, *Errungenſchaft* something won, achievement, *Wiſſenſchaft* news, information.

b. Conduct, attitude, relationship, condition: *Bruderſchaft*, or now more commonly *Brüderſchaft* relationship of brothers, close friendship, *Freundſchaft* friendship, *Feindſchaft* enmity, *Meiſterſchaft* championship, *Bereitſchaft* readiness, *Gefangenſchaft* captivity, *Brautſchaft* state of being betrothed, engagement, *Witwenſchaft* widowhood.

c. A collective idea: *Wiſſenſchaft* science, *Bruderſchaft* or now more commonly *Brüderſchaft* fraternity, *Bürgerſchaft* all the citizens of a place, *meine Herrſchaften!* (in direct address) ladies and gentlemen! *Kaufmannſchaft* all the merchants of a place, *Gesandtſchaft* embassy, an ambassador with his corps of assistants, *Ortſchaft* city, town, village, *Wirtſchaft* family, doings, goings-on, *Hinterlaſſenſchaft* property left by a person at his death, *Brieſſchaften* papers, written documents.

12. *tel*, reduced form of *Teil* *part*, a neuter suffix added to the stem of ordinals to form fractions. The final *t* of the stem of the ordinal is dropped before the *t* of the suffix: *Drittel* *third*, *Sechſtel* *sixth*, *Zwanzigſtel*. See also 126. 2. a.

Note. Both ordinal and suffix were formerly independent words: M.H.G. *daz vünfte teil*. Later both words entered into a compound. By reason of its weak accent in the compound *teil* has been reduced to *tel*. This change of the noun *Teil* when it becomes the unaccented component of a compound has taken place in the present period, and fitly illustrates the process by which, in general, words used as component elements have gradually under loss of accent changed their form, and at last lost their identity with the original word. *Teil* was formerly masc. or neut. The suffix *tel* is now exclusively neut., and the noun *Teil* is almost always masc., and thus the two forms differing in form and gender are drifting apart. Preceding the change of form the suffix usually takes on a little different shade of meaning which facilitates the separation from the original word and the change of form.

13. 1. *tum* (cognate with Eng. *dom* as in *kingdom*), once an independent noun, now a neuter (except in the two masc. nouns *Reichtum* wealth, *Irrtum* error) suffix, added to nouns, adjectives, and verbs, to denote:

a. The dignity, rank, profession of the class of persons mentioned

in the stem of the noun, with all the peculiar characteristics which attach to such a dignity, rank, or profession: *Kaisertum* office and power of an emperor, *Priestertum* priesthood.

b. A condition, state, or an action: *Siechtum* a state of poor health, *Wachstum* a state of healthy growth, *Reichtum* wealthy state, *Irrtum* state of error, erring, error.

c. A collective idea: *Bürgertum* the citizens of a place, *Judentum* the Jewish people, *Reichtum* all that which is implied by the word 'rich,' *riches*, *Altertum* all that period of time which can be said to have age, *antiquity*. These words may also take on concrete meaning: *Heiligtum* sanctuary, *Kaisertum* empire, *Eigentum* property, lit. all that which is one's own, *Altertum* an object that has been preserved from a former age.

Note. If *tum* and *schaft* may both be affixed to the same stem to show the collective idea, there is a little shade of difference in their meaning. The latter marks more distinctly the collective idea, the former the dignity or the peculiar character or nature which attaches to the dignity, rank, or profession: *Priester-schaft* priests taken collectively, *Priestertum* peculiar character and nature of the priesthood.

2. The suffixes *heit*, *schaft*, *tum* had originally about the same force, and are still so used, but in cases where these suffixes are added to the same stem as in the *Note* above, differentiation of meaning usually takes place: *Christenheit* Christian world, *Christentum* Christianity, peculiar character and nature of the Christian faith and life; *Eigentum* property, *Eigenheit* peculiarity, *Eigen-schaft* quality; *Bereit-schaft* outward readiness, preparedness, *Bereitheit* inward readiness, willingness. Their use is sometimes subject to caprice, not to a fixed difference of meaning: *Heiden-schaft* *heathenism*, *heathen world*, but *Christenheit* *Christianity*, *Christian world*.

14. 1. *ung* (cognate with Eng. *ing* as in *warning*), usually a fem. suffix, affixed in most cases to the stem of transitive verbs, especially compounds and derivatives, rarely to the stem of nouns. It is related to *ing* (see 7, above), as can still be seen in the few words where the suffix is masculine: *die Nibelungen* the children of the mist (*Nebel*), name usually given to the sons and vassals of *Nibelung*, a mythical king; *Hornung* (here *Horn* = *corner* as in Old Norse) February, literally *cornerling*, one who takes a back seat, i.e. unimportant in amount of days in comparison with the other months. Others explain *Hornung* as *the little Horn*, January being *the large Horn*.

The feminine suffix has become exceedingly fruitful and is now used to denote:

a. An activity: *Bewachung* guarding, *Bewaffnung* arming, *Erziehung* education. This suffix gives the noun sometimes almost pure verbal force, so that it can usually take a dependent objective genitive and sometimes a real direct object, which must then be written as one word with the verbal noun, and sometimes it takes a prepositional phrase with almost the force of an adverbial modifier: *die Erziehung der Knaben* the education of the boys, *Knabenerziehung* (see also 249. II. 1. D. (1)) the education of boys, *die Befreiung aus der Not*

deliverance from distress. It is also added to intransitive stems : Die Binden stillten die Blutung The bandages stopped the bleeding. With intransitive stems it can take a predicate noun, which is written as one word with the verbal substantive : die Menschwerdung the incarnation, lit. the becoming a man. These derivatives cannot only have active force as in the preceding examples, but also sometimes passive and even reflexive force : Seine Erhebung auf den Thron verdankte er seinen Siegen He owed his being raised upon the throne to his victories. In der Opferung für andere seiner Seele Glück zu finden, ist nur wenigen gegeben Only a few find happiness of soul in sacrificing themselves for others. See 189.

Note. These derivatives with verbal force, though still much used, seem to be becoming less popular, as many formations common in the eighteenth century and even later are now replaced by shorter formations : die Erblickung (Goethe), now replaced by der Anblick ; die Zurücknehmung (Lessing), now die Zurücknahme ; die Besuchung (Wieland), now der Besuch ; die Erstannung (Wieland), now das Erstaunen ; die Beschließung (Heinrich v. Kleist), now Beschluß, &c. On the other hand, the use of these derivatives seems to be growing more frequent in that common construction which prefers to clothe the chief idea of the predicate in the form of a noun rather than that of a verb : Es wird in Erwägung gezogen (instead of erwogen) It is being considered. Das Stück wird bald zur Aufführung gebracht (instead of aufgeführt) The piece will soon be played. See 252. 1. a. *Note 2.*

b. A condition, state : Aufregung excitement, Beklemmung anxiety.

c. Sometimes it denotes something concrete which is closely associated with an activity in the relation of a result, product, means, place, &c. : Zeichnung the product of drawing, a drawing, Erfrischung refreshment, that by which we are refreshed, Kleidung that with which one is clothed, i. e. *clothes*, Wohnung a dwelling-house, Biegung a bend in the road, Krümmung a turn in the river, Festung fortress, Niederung low ground.

d. A collective idea, since a number may be engaged together in the same activity : Regierung government, Bedienung body of servants in a house, Besatzung crew. This collective idea is also seen in derivatives from nouns and such as are now felt as belonging to a noun : Waldung large forest (in its entirety), Holzung wood, grove, Besatzung garrison, &c.

2. The suffix *nis* sometimes approaches near to the force of *ung* : Verlöbniß or Verlobung betrothal, Hinderniß and Verhinderung hinderance, &c. However, in most cases the verbal force is stronger in *ung*, as can be seen in the objective gen. which may follow it. In other cases the meaning of the two suffixes drifts still farther apart : Bildniß picture, lit. that which has been formed, Bildung education, culture, lit. that which has been formed ; Ergebniß result, Ergebung resignation, submission.

15. A few suffixes which were originally used in forming proper names are later, as also to-day, used in common class nouns :

a. bold (from M. H. G. *balt*) *bold* : Leypold (*the bold one among the people*). This suffix in common class nouns indicates an inclination to that which is indicated by the stem of the derivative : Witbold wit, one fond of getting off witty things, Raufbold one fond of getting into a fight, Trunkenbold drunkard, &c.

Note. *Rebolb* does not belong here. It is derived from *Reben house* (formerly for human beings, but now in the sense of *pig-sty*) and *walt protector* or *hold favorably inclined to*, formerly applied to friendly house-spirits, now usually to unfriendly spirits in general.

b. jan, Low German form of *Johannes John*, added to adjectival and verbal stems to indicate a person endowed with the quality or inclined to the activity expressed in the stem of the derivative: *Dummerjan a stupid fellow*, lit. *stupid Jack*, *Murrjan grumbling fellow*.

This suffix may be replaced by the foreign suffix *ian* of like meaning; hence there is sometimes a double form, as in *Dummerjan* or *Dummrian*. Some have more commonly the foreign form: *Grobian*, *Schlendrian*, &c.

16. A few suffixes occur only in a few words and have a force that is not always felt distinctly:

a. icht, usually a neut., sometimes a masc. suffix, sometimes both, affixed to nouns, adjectives, verbs to denote a collective idea: *daß Röhricht* reeds or a place where reeds grow, *daß Dickicht* thicket, *der* or *daß Rehricht* sweepings, &c.

b. rich, in Gothic an independent word *reiks ruler*, in M.H.G. an adjective *rich mighty, rich*, surviving in the adjective *reich rich* and the suffix *rich*, which is affixed to names of persons and plants with its original meaning *ruler*, but weakened in force: *Friedrich* Frederic, lit. prince of peace, *Wegerich* plantain, lit. ruler of the road, &c. *Enterich* is of different origin. The last part of the word is of the same origin as Eng. *drake*. The first part is the German *Ente*. *Gänserich* and *Läuberich* have been formed after the analogy of *Enterich*.

c. ud, present participle ending, but not felt as such; hence all words with this suffix have the inflection of nouns and are true fossils: *Heiland* (*heilen* to heal) the Savior, lit. the healing one, *Wind* (*wehen* to blow) wind, *Feind* (Gothic *fijan*, to hate) enemy, *Freund* (Gothic *frijōn*, to love) friend, &c.

d. ch, a masc. suffix found in a few names of plants, animals, and things: *Altich* dwarf-elder, *Kranich* crane, *Vottich* vat, &c.

e. A few in *at*, *ut*: *die Heimat* native city, *der Monat* month, *die Armut* poverty, &c.

f. A few in *ig*, mostly masc.: *Zeisig* greenfinch, *Käfig* cage, *daß Reisig* brush-wood.

Note. In a few words *ig* is the reduced form of an earlier *ing* (see 7, above): *König* (O.H.G. *kuning head of the tribe*) king, *Pfennig* or until recently also *Pfenning* penny.

17. The names of a number of rivers and smaller streams and places named from them end in *ach* = M.H.G. *ah* *river* = Latin *aqua*. The names of rivers and streams are feminine, but the names of places are of course neuter according to the rule for such names. This suffix is not a genuine suffix, as it is in the Alps also used as an independent noun, *die Ach* or in the fuller form *Ache little stream*: *die Gasteiner Ache* (tributary of the Salzach). In *Rußnacht* (place) it has the form of *acht*.

18. **at**, an accented foreign suffix from the Latin *-atus*, affixed to foreign stems to denote a rank, office, position, building where the office-holder resides, state. It is always neuter in a number of words, as *Rektorat* rectorship, *Konsulat* consulship, *Pastorat* pastorate, parsonage. In others under learned influences the masculine gender is also found as in Latin: *das* and *der* *Cölibat* celibacy, *das* and *der* *Episcopat* episcopate, *das* and *der* *Primat* primateship, &c. In *Magistrat* city council, *Ornat* official costume, *Traetat* treaty, treatise, it is usually masculine.

II. *Derivative Adjectives.*

1. **artig** (= *Art kind, manner* + *ig*), an independent adjective with the meaning *well-behaved*, and also added as a suffix to nouns and adjectives to indicate a kind, manner, resemblance: *aalartig* like an eel, *eely*, *bergartig* resembling a mountain, *turmartig* tower-like, &c.; *fremdartig* strange, *großartig* grand, magnificent, *gutartig* good-natured, &c.: *ein aalartiger Höfing*; *mit seiner assenartigen Geschwindigkeit*. *Artig* is now felt as a suffix, but in a number of cases the real suffix is *ig*: *gutartig* = *gute Art* + *ig*; &c.

2. **bar** (from *bērn*, to carry, bear), once an independent adj. *bäri bearing*, now a suffix, affixed to nouns and verbs, to denote:

a. That the stem-word in the derivative is the object of the verb that is implied in the suffix: *schiffbar* navigable, lit. bearing a ship, *fruchtbar* fertile, lit. bearing fruit, *danfbar* grateful, lit. bearing thanks.

b. The possibility or ability to perform, or more commonly to receive the activity implied in the stem of the derivative: *streitbar* able to fight, *leßbar* legible, capable of being read, *gangbar* passable, *sichtbar* visible.

Note. In some words both active and passive force lies in *bar*: *haltbare Leinwand* strong linen, linen that will hold; *eine haltbare Behauptung* a tenable assertion, one that can be held.

c. Rarely with other parts of speech: *offenbar*, *sonderbar*.

3. **en** (M.H.G. *in*), **n** (after *er*), **ern**, a suffix sometimes causing mutation, affixed to a name of a material to indicate that the substantive which the adj. modifies represents an object made of that material: *golden* golden, *hansen* or *hanfen* hempen, *silbern* silver, *hölzern* wooden.

a. The form *en* is usually added to the stem of the noun unless the latter ends in *e* or *er*, in which case only *n* is added: *Wolle* wool, *woollen* woollen; *Kupfer* copper, *kupfern* copper (adj.). In a number of cases the suffix *n* is added to the plural of such words as form a pl. in *er*: *Holz* wood, *hölzern* wooden; *Glas* glass, *gläsern* glass, of glass. After the analogy of many adjectives thus ending in *ern* a number have likewise mutated the stem vowel and added *ern* to the stem as if this were the regular suffix, especially in cases of stems ending in *i*, *u*, *ä*: *stählern* steel, *beinern* made of bone, *steinern* made of stone, *zinnern* tin, *tönern* earthen, *wächsern* waxen.

Note. As explained in 73. a, the *er* of the plural of nouns was originally not a plural case ending, but a suffix which was also found in the singular. Thus in case of nouns ending in *er* in the plural the adjective suffix *it* is only seemingly added to the plural, as it was in fact originally added to the singular. The *er* in the plural of nouns, however, has long been felt and construed as a plural case ending, as the *er* of the singular was dropped and its existence forgotten. Thus the *er* in the adjective suffix *erit* is now felt as belonging to the plural of the noun in question, or as a formation made after the analogy of such words, while in fact it is a fossil remnant of the original stem suffix. In most cases, however, it is not really the old stem suffix, as words not entitled to it have only assumed it after the analogy of the original group.

b. This suffix denotes that the object in question is entirely made of the mentioned material: *hölzerne Bänke wooden benches*, but *holzige Rettige radishes of a woody fibre*.

c. This suffix is not much used in the predicate, being there replaced by the preposition *von* and a noun, and in the attributive relation is sometimes replaced by a compound noun: *Der Tisch ist von Holz. Marmorsäule marble pillar*, instead of *marmorne Säule*. But in elevated diction the suffix is also found in the predicate: *Der Stuhl ist elfenbeinern, darauf der Kaiser sitzt (Rückert's Barbarossa)*. In figurative use adjectives with this suffix are quite commonly found in the predicate: *Sein Gesicht war jetzt grau und steinern (rigid) wie das der Riesen am Tor (Volkmann's Die beiden Weiser)*.

4. *erlei*, see 126. I. a.

5. *fach*, see 126. I. b.

6. *fältig*, see 126. I. b.

7. *haft* (related to *Haft* clasp), once an independent adjective, now a mere suffix. It is usually added directly to the stem, but a number of weak masculines take *en* between stem and suffix, which is probably felt as a weak genitive ending, although corresponding strong genitive formations do not occur: *bärenhaft, knabenhaft, heldenhaft, riesenhaft*, but *schülerhaft, meisterhaft, &c.*

The leading points as to use and form are as follows:

I. *a.* Added to abstract nouns, it represents something as infected with, marred by, or as possessing the qualities implied in the stem of the derivative: *sündhaft* sinful, *lasterhaft* vicious, *fehlerhaft* faulty, *tugendhaft* virtuous, *schamhaft* bashful, &c.

b. Added to concrete nouns it represents something as possessing or inclining towards the thing or the characteristics of the thing mentioned in the stem of the derivative: *teilhaft* having a part, share in, *seßhaft* having a dwelling, settled, *wohnhaft* residing, *schalkhaft* having the characteristics of a wag, waggish, *riesenhaft* gigantic, *schülerhaft* schoolboy-like.

Note. Here *haft* touches close to *isch* and *lich*: *heldenhaft* and *heldisch* heroic, *göttlich* divine.

c. In the adjectives *boßhaft* malicious, *frankhaft* morbid, *wahrhaft* truthful, *leckerhaft* loving nice things to eat, &c., it represents persons as resembling in their manner and ways the attribute mentioned in the stem or as having a fondness for things possessing this attribute.

d. Added to verbal stems it implies an inclination towards that which is mentioned in the stem-word, or indicates that the person or thing to which reference is made possesses something which is connected with the activity mentioned in the stem-word: *naschhaft* fond of eating tit-bits, *schwatzhaft* talkative, *schmeichelfhaft* containing something which flatters, hence *complimentary*, *glaubhaft* containing that which inspires belief, hence *credible, trustworthy*, *efelhaft* containing that which nauseates.

2. In some words the lengthened form *=haftig* is also used with the same general meaning as the shorter one: *wahrhaftig* truthful, *teilhaftig* having a part, share in, *leibhaftig* bodily, in person, &c. The *=ig* is always thus added before *=feit* to form abstract nouns: *tugendhaft* virtuous, *Tugendhaftigkeit* virtuousness.

8. *icht*, closely related in origin and meaning to *=ig* (see 9, below), so that in most cases it has been entirely supplanted by the latter, or survives only as a less common variant: *bergicht*, or more commonly *bergig*, &c. Only the form *töricht* is established. Grammarians since Adelung's day have without fixed results tried to establish in a few cases a shade of difference between *=ig* and *=icht*. In the former should lie the idea of having or possessing the thing mentioned in the stem of the derivative, while *icht* should denote only an outward resemblance: *steinige Äcker* stony fields *steinichte Birnen* pears which are as hard as stone.

a. In M.H.G. *=icht* appears as *eht*, *oht*, *aht*, and hence there is no mutation in these words, except *töricht* foolish.

b. Formerly *=icht* was most common after the suffix *=el*, and is still occasionally found there in the form of *=ich* instead of the more common *ig*; *fünf von den weismäntlichen Kürassieren* (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, III, chap. 12); *kurzärmlich* (id., III, 4).

c. In S.G. dialect *icht* often appears as *et*: *flachschäaret* for *flachs-haarig*, &c.

9. *ig* (cognate with *y* in *hungry*), a very common suffix with the general meaning of *having, possessing*. The leading points as to form and meaning are as follows:

1. a. Its O.H.G. form was *ag* or *ig*; hence there have resulted two groups of words, one with mutation, the other without it: *frostig*, *durstig*, &c., but *flüchtig*, *sündig*, &c.

b. It is affixed to all parts of speech, and in a number of cases it is even added to compounds which do not exist outside of this combination, as in *vielsöpfig* *many-headed* (but not *Wielsöpf*).

2. Affixed to some parts of speech, it has a definite meaning, while after others it is a mere mechanical form used to make an adj. out of some other part of speech. The following points may be a guide as to its use:

A. It denotes:

a. The possession or the presence of the thing implied in the stem of the noun: *sonnig* sunny, *buschig* bushy, *fleißig* diligent, *sandig* sandy. This idea leads sometimes to a causative relation: *freudige Nachrichten* news that contains joy, hence news which makes us rejoice, *verdächtig* causing, arousing suspicion.

b. The presence of the quality implied in the adj. stem, usually, however, in a less degree or a different shade: *spitz* running to a sharp point, *spitzig* (possibly from the noun *Spitze*) pointed; *fett* fat, *fettig* greasy; *laß* wearied, *lässig* indolent, lacking energy.

c. An inclination toward or a quality naturally associated with the activity implied in the verbal stem: *bissig* inclined to bite (as of a dog), *brummig* inclined to grumble, *fähig* (*fähen* = *fangen*) capable, *gefällig* of a nature such as to please, agreeable, *ergiebig* productive, *freigebig* liberal, *fällig* due, lit. which should now fall or be paid, *harthörig* hard of hearing.

d. It has much the same force as *haft*. Some stems regularly take the one suffix, some the other, and some have both. If both suffixes are added to the same stem, they sometimes have the same force, sometimes a differentiation of meaning: *flatschig* or *flatschhaft* prone to gossip; *herzig* lovely, but *herzhaft* courageous; *gläubig* believing, but *glaubhaft* inspiring belief, credible.

B. It is a mere formal suffix used to make an adj. out of other parts of speech, when added to the stem of pronouns, prepositions, and adverbs: *derjenige*, *der meinige*, *die übrigen* (über over, above) *Personen* the remaining persons, *die jetzige* (jetzt now) *Mode* the present fashion, *die heutige* (heute to-day) *Zeitung* to-day's newspaper, *der obige Satz* the above sentence, *die dortigen Gebräuche* the customs of that place. In a few words of more than one syllable the stem is shortened: *die morgige Feier*, in *der übermorgigen Sitzung* (Sudermann's *Der Sturmgesele Sokrates*, I, 15). In several cases an *f* is now, contrary to earlier usage, inserted between the adverbial stem and the suffix to prevent two vowels from coming together: *die hiesigen* (hie here) *Fabriken* the factories of this place, *dasig* (da there) of that place. Thus also any noun or expression denoting the *time* or *duration* of an act or state may take on adjective function by affixing *ig*: *das nächtige Wegschleppen der Angeklagten* the dragging away of the accused in the night, *diese vierzehnmönatige Haft* this fourteen months' imprisonment. Also *lich* can be affixed to such nouns and expressions, but it denotes the *repetition* or *manner* of the activity; see II. 2. A. e, f. All such formations in *ig* and *lich* are in fact true adverbs, as they denote some circumstance of time, place, or manner, and hence are adjectives only in form.

10. *isch* (cognate with Eng. *ish* as in *childish*) or *sch* (see I. a, below), a common suffix denoting a belonging to that mentioned in the stem of the derivative. This original meaning can still be seen in the following groups which illustrate its present use as to meaning and form:

1. Affixed to names of persons, countries, peoples, districts, and places, it usually has the force of an English noun in the possessive case, or the objective after the prep. *of*, and thus indicates a belonging to, or something concerning, or a coming or descent from the person, people, or place mentioned in the stem, or indicates a participation in their personal or local peculiarities and characteristics: *die Schirmmacherische Hypothek* the mortgage held (i. e. owned) by Mr. Schirmmacher, *das Schmidtische Haus* the Smith

residence, die Treibelschen Diners the dinners given by the Treibels, der Kommerzienrat Treibelsche Kutscher the coachman of Mr. Treibel, councillor of commerce, ein Schmidtsches Lieblingssthema a favorite theme of Mr. Schmidt, das Schmidtsche that which characterizes a true Schmidt, ich persönlich bin mehr ins Gieshüblersche geschlagen I myself have taken more after the Gieshüblers (the father's side of the speaker's family), die Paul Heyse'schen Novellen Paul Heyse's novelettes, das Hallische Waisenhaus the Orphans' Home of Halle, die straßburgische Universität the University of Strassburg, die darmstädtische Verwaltung the government of the city of Darmstadt, die römische Geschichte the history of Rome, or Roman history.

Adjectives formed from names of persons do not suffer mutation, and likewise most adjectives from names of places, but a few, as hannoversch or hannoversch, römisch, and those in -stadt (friedrichstädtisch, &c., after the analogy of städtisch formed from the common noun Stadt), are mutated. Those derived from names of peoples usually mutate: fränkisch, französisch, jüdisch, sächsisch, &c. A number, however, especially foreign words and new formations, do not suffer mutation: amerikanisch, arisch, gotisch, russisch, spanisch, &c.

a. The original method of adding the suffix was to affix it directly to the simple stem, as in bremisch, Goethisch, but the modern trend is to shorten the suffix to sch (also 'sch), and then add it to the full name: bremensch, Goethesch. In this way the name is not mutilated, and can always be inferred from the adjective form. Proper adjectives do not uniformly follow this new trend, however, and hence both forms are found. The full suffix isch is still used if the preceding syllable is accented: Home'risch, Hora'zisch, &c. Differentiation of meaning between the two forms sometimes takes place. The form sch is employed where there is reference to one person, and isch where the meaning becomes general or abstract: die Luthersche Sprache *Luther's language*, but die luth'e'rische (see also 47. 2. A. d) Kirche *the Lutheran church*. The form isch is most commonly employed thus in the predicate relation: die Gott'sche'sche Orthographie the orthography of Gottsched, but Die Orthographie ist Gott'schedisch. Die Ranke'sche or more commonly Ranke'sche Weltgeschichte *Ranke's History of the World*, but Er versucht zwar Ranke nachzuahmen, aber seine Darstellung klingt gar nicht Ranke'sch. However, we also now find the shortened form in the predicate: Ihre Lösung ist hier ja, wir sind konservativ, sehr, aber nicht Bismarck'sch (Bismarck to his wife, July 20, 1849). Ja, Corinnchen, in diesem Belang bist du auch ganz Schmidt'sch (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. 11). Emil, der Professor, Bruder des Majors, ein großer vielleicht von allen am wenigsten Eysen'sch aussehender Mann (G. Ompteda) looking least of all like an Eysen (family).

b. Many names of cities form indeclinable adjectives in -er (see 111. 7. a) instead of taking (i)sch, and some admit of either suffix: Limburger Käse Limburg cheese, der kölnische or Kölner Dom the cathedral of Cologne. It should be noticed, however, that only the form in (i)sch can be used in the substantive relation or predicatively in the adjective relation: Das Berlinische *the dialect*

of *Berlin*, not *das Berliner*. *Das ist Berlinisch* (not *Berliner*) that is a Berlin trait.

Note 1. Also some names of countries or sections of a country take the suffix *-er* instead of *-isch*, especially *Schweizer* (or *schweizerisch*), *Holländer* (or *holländisch*), *Hölsteiner* (or *hölsteinitisch*), *Schwarzwälder* (very common, as in *Schwarzwälder Uhren*), and the names of many Austrian states or sections: *Dalmatiner Wein*, *Kärnthner Lieder*, *Banater Grenzfelsat*, *Krainer Höhlen*, *Steyrer Wagen*, *Tiroler Landsturm*, &c. Grammarians do not favor such, and other similar formations, but some of them are more or less widely used.

Note 2. The adjectives of this group which take *-isch* usually add the suffix directly to the name, but *schweizerisch* and *wienerisch* regularly suffix *-isch* to the lengthened form in *-et*.

c. In a number of cases usage adopts here the Latin adjective suffixes *-anus*, *-inus*, and *-ensis*, converting, however, the last syllable into *-isch*: *amerikanisch* American, *florentinisch* Florentine, *athenienisch* or *athenisch* Athenian, &c. The foreign form should be avoided in case of German words: *hannoversch* or *hannoverschisch* rather than *hannoveranisch*; *weimarsch* rather than *weimaranisch*; &c.

2. Affixed to common nouns denoting persons or things, it denotes:

a. The peculiar manner and character of the class of persons or things mentioned in the stem word: *teufelisch* devilish, *dichterisch* poetic, *kriegerisch* warlike, *erfinderisch* inventive, *tierisch* animal, brutal, *höfisch* courtly, fawning, *städtisch* after the manner of city people, *irdisch* earthly, *höllisch* infernal, *demokratisch* democratic, &c. There are a few contracted forms: *deutsch* (O.H.G. diot *people* + *-isch*, used of the popular language in contradistinction to the Latin of the learned class) *German*; *Mensch* (contracted form of *männisch*, hence originally an adjective) *human being* = Latin *homo*; *hübsch* (originally another form of *höfisch* *courtly*, but now with differentiated meaning) *pretty*.

The suffix usually causes mutation here. Those in *-erisch*, however, only mutate when the stem word is mutated: *träumerisch*, from *Träumer*; but *malerisch*, from *Maler*.

Note. Here *-isch* has the signification of *-lich*, but when both can be added to the same word their meanings often diverge, the former sometimes taking on a disparaging sense: *findlich* child-like (in a good sense), *findisch* childish; *weiblich* womanly, *weibisch* (in early N.H.G. still in good sense; see Peter iii. 7) womanish; *männlich* manly, *männisch* (see also *b*) *like a man*, when used in a derogatory sense of a woman, or *coarse*, when used of a man, referring to his lack of refinement; *höflich* polite, *höfisch* fawning, &c. Thus nouns meaning primarily something good, as *Recht* right, *Gott* God, *Jungfrau* virgin, do not usually take *-isch*, and those signifying something bad, as *Satan* Satan, *Abgott* idol, do not take *-lich*. On the other hand, *-isch* does in some words occur in a good sense: *Ich bin kein Held, und das Heldische läßt sich nicht lernen* (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. viii). *Er brauche ja nur ein Bauerngewand, denn herrlich* (dressed like a gentleman) *dürfe niemand kommen* (Berlepsch's *Fortunats Roman*, p. 183).

b. Somebody or something concerned or connected with, or restricted to that which is mentioned in the stem word, usually causing mutation only in native German words: *historisch* historical, *philologisch* philological, *seelisch* of the soul, *ein zweimännisches* (provinc.; or more commonly *zweischläferiges*) *Bett* a bed for two persons. We usually find *männlich* *male*, *weiblich* *female*, on account of the dis-

paraging sense often found in *=isch*, but *männisch* is quite commonly used in a good sense in compounds: *männliche Studenten*, but in *sach=männischen Kreisen* in professional circles, *kaufmännische Beziehungen*, &c.

Note. Though *isch*, here as in *a*, has the same general meaning as *lich*, it is decidedly the favorite with words of foreign origin, as nicely illustrated by the following sentence: *Und doch, lieber Benß, ich möchte heute, wenn es geht, etwas anderes von Ihnen hören als Kulinarisches oder Frühstückliches* (Fontane's *Unwiederbringlich*, chap. 16). Compare 2. A. c under *lich*, below.

c. As in 1 above, it contains the possessive idea, but this idea is more commonly expressed in this category by *lich* (see 11. 2. A. b, below): *tierische Gewebe tissues of animals, animal tissues*, but *pflanzliche Gewebe*, &c.

3. Affixed to stems of abstract nouns or verbs, it denotes an inclination toward the thing or quality denoted by the stem, usually causing mutation: *zänftisch quarrelsome*, *neftisch inclined to tease*, *droll, mürrisch morose*. This is a favorite formation with the people, who extend it beyond the literary limits: *Robinson ist immer so wenig, wiewohl er den Streußel ungeheuer gern mag. Aber so sind die Engländer, sie sind nicht so zugreiftisch* (Frau Imme in Fontane's *Stechlin*, chap. 14, p. 186).

Note. Here *=isch* has the same force as *=haft* and *=ig*, some stems preferring one suffix, some another. Also *=sam* has the same general force, but it differs from the other three in not having as wide a range of meanings, expressing usually only an inclination toward praiseworthy things: *folgsam obedient*; *arbeitsam industrious*.

4. It is suffixed to an adj. in the one word *linftisch* awkward, lit. left-handed, to an adverb in *heimisch* home-like, to a pronoun in *selbstisch* selfish.

5. The frequent occurrence of *=isch* after stems in *=er*, as in 2, above, has given rise to the idea that the suffix is *=erisch*, as can be seen in *regnerisch* rainy.

11. *lich* (cognate with Eng. *ly* as in *friendly*), once an independent word, now a suffix with the general meaning of resembling or befitting that which is contained in the stem of the derivative. The following points may serve as a guide to its use:

1. It is affixed to nouns, adjectives, and verbs: *männlich* manly, *rötlich* reddish, *verständlich* intelligible, *begreiflich* conceivable.

a. When *=lich* is added to the present part., *t* appears as *t*, according to older usage: *hoffentlich* as is to be hoped, *wissentlich* wilful. After the manner of these part. adjectives, other adjectives have inserted a *t*: *wöchentlich* weekly, *gelegentlich* occasional, &c. Other good grammarians look at this matter differently. They regard the *t* in all these cases to be an excrescent growth, as it does not usually appear in the M.H.G. period. Thus the basal component according to this view is the infinitive (*wissen*, &c.). In case of *tunlich* the infinitive form is actually found, but earlier in the period *tulich* was also common.

b. In some words the lengthened form *=erlich* is found instead of *lich*: *lächerlich*, *leiserlich*, *fürchterlich*, &c.

c. If the stem-word is a monosyllable the vowel is mutated, except in *bebaglich*, *saßlich*, *folglich*, *fraglich*, *gaßlich*, *gebanftlich*, *glaublich*, *sachlich*, *sanglich*,

sorglich, sportlich, sprachlich, staatlich, stattlich, tauglich, unerforschlich, verdaulich, wahrlich, widerruflich. If the stem-word is a dissyllabic, it is also sometimes mutated: Brüderlich, mütterlich, väterlich, jämmerlich, nebensächlich. The same stem-word may be mutated or not with a difference of meaning: sächlich neuter, sachlich sticking to the question at hand.

2. It differs somewhat in meaning according to the part of speech to which it is affixed:

A. Affixed to nouns it denotes:

a. An attribute which naturally belongs to the person or thing denoted by the stem: ein väterlicher Rat a piece of paternal advice, männlicher Mut manly courage; festlich festive, herbstlich autumn-like, autumnal. Wir ist nur immer merkwürdig, daß du, neben Homer und sogar neben Schliemann, mit solcher Vorliebe Kochbuchliches (matters which belong to a cook-book) behandelst (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. vii).

b. Possession or origin, often equivalent to an attributive genitive: kaiserliche Schlösser castles of the emperor, pflanzliche Gewebe tissues of plants, plant tissues, sprachliche Eigenheiten peculiarities of speech, sein mütterliches Vermögen property inherited from his mother, ein mütterlicher Onkel an uncle on the mother's side. Compare 10. 2. c, above.

c. Something concerning, or concerned or connected with, or effected by that which is mentioned in the stem-word: nebensächlich concerning a minor point, of secondary importance, literarisches matters with regard to literature, Frühstückliches (Fontane's *Unwiederbringlich*, chap. 16) matters pertaining to breakfast, friedlich peaceful, ängstlich anxious, sinnliche Wahrnehmung perception through the senses, polizeiliches Einschreiten intervention by the police, künstliche Zähne artificial teeth. Compare 10. 2. b. Note, above, under -isch.

Note. Notice the difference here between -ig and -lich: der fremdsprachliche Unterricht instruction in foreign languages, but Österreich ist ein vielsprachiges Land und hat zwei- und dreisprachige Schulen Austria is a land in which many languages are spoken, and hence it has schools in which two or even three languages are used as mediums for imparting instruction.

d. Somebody afflicted or blessed with that which is mentioned in the stem-word: gebrechlich afflicted with infirmities, glücklich happy.

e. Repetition: eine jährliche Reise a journey taken every year, ein täglicher Gast a daily guest. In such cases ig would denote duration: eine zweijährige Reise a journey that lasts two years.

f. An attribute of an abstract noun, indicating the manner in which an activity proceeds: eine tätliche Beleidigung an insult offered in the way of blows, briefliche Auskunft information obtained by letter, eine schriftliche Zusicherung a written assurance. The suffix is, with this meaning, also added to adjectives, as ein gänzlicher Mangel a complete lack. Such adjectives are really adverbs in the form of adjectives, and hence cannot be attributes of objects, as they only modify the activity implied in the noun. Even when such adjectives modify nouns representing persons, they refer more to the activity exercised than to the persons: ein glücklicher Spieler a lucky gambler.

B. Affixed to adjectives and participles it has:

a. Adverbial force, being used just as the derivatives from nouns described in A. f, above, to denote an attribute of an abstract, verbal

noun: bitterlich bitterly, völlig complete, gänzlich complete, wissentlich wilful (sin, lie), gütlich amicable, &c. Ex.: die gütliche Beilegung des Streites the amicable settlement of the quarrel. In a number of cases such formations are only used adverbially: freilich to be sure, surely, kürzlich lately, bekanntlich as is well known, &c.; see also IV. 2. b, below.

b. Diminutive force with reference to things and the idea of inclination toward when applied to persons: schwärzlich blackish, länglich oblong, rundlich roundish, &c.; fleinlich inclined to be small, pedantic, mean-souled, fränzlich sickly, süßlich sweetish, affected, soft, fulsome, &c.

Note. Earlier in the period and in dialect still the form *licht* is found: Der Sonne rötlicher Untergang (Schiller).

c. In other cases where there is a simple adjective and a derivative in *lich*, a differentiation of meaning takes place: arm *poor*, ärmlich having the outward signs of poverty; &c.

C. Affixed to verbs it has:

a. Active force, representing the person or thing to which it refers as acting, or acting upon something: erbaulich edifying, schädlich injurious, schmerzlich painful, &c. Exs.: ein unterhaltliches Weib (Anzengruber's *Schandfleck*, chap. 21), etwas tief Betrübliches (Fontane's *Unwiederbringlich*, chap. 22), nichts geradezu Verstimmliches (id., *Stechlin*, chap. viii).

b. Passive force, representing the person or thing to which it refers as a possible or deserving (usually in a reprehensible sense) recipient of an action: bestechlich capable of being bribed, bribable, beweglich movable, faßlich comprehensible, sträflich deserving punishment, verwerflich deserving rejection, bad, abominable, &c.

Lich here touches close to *=bar*, but is more common in composition with prefixes, and not so common with simple stems: brechbar, brennbar, &c., not usually brechlich, brennlich, &c., on the other hand more commonly zerbrechlich, verbrennlich, &c. The *=bar*, however, can also usually be employed here, as it has a little different shade of meaning: it has more verbal force and emphasizes the idea of possibility. *Lich*, however, is always used in möglich, leidlich, unaussprechlich, üblich, löblich, &c.

c. Either active or passive force, as the verb has active or passive meaning: zerbrechlich, verbrennlich, &c. The positive form is sometimes active, while the negative form is passive: vergeßlich forgetful, but unvergeßlich never to be forgotten, &c.

3. The meanings of *=lich* often touch very close to those of *=haft* and *=bar*. When *=lich* and *=haft*, or *=lich* and *=bar*, may be added to the same stem or two stems of kindred meanings, the different words sometimes have about the same force: Es war bei allem Tantlichen etwas ausgesprochen Unkelhaftes in der Art und Weise, wie sie das junge ängstliche Mädchen an den Handgelenken ergriff (Raabe's *Eulenspiegel*, chap. 5). Sometimes a shade appears: schadhast injured, broken, schädlich injurious; schmerzhaft accompanied with pain, as eine schmerzhafteste Krankheit, Wunde, Operation, schmerzlich causing pain, as eine

schmerzliche Pflicht; kostbar costly, kostlich precious; lesbar legible, also readable, interesting, leserlich legible. See 12. 1. *b. Note*, below.

12. *sam*, related to the Latin *similis* similar, Eng. same and -some (, as in winsome), and German *samt* *together with*, denoting originally a close, intimate connection with or similarity, but this meaning cannot always easily be detected.

It is now usually affixed:

1. To abstract nouns and verbs to denote:

a. An inclination toward a thing implied in the stem of the noun, or an attribute which naturally belongs to it: sorgsam careful, furchtsam (originally belonging here, but now felt as belonging to *b*) timid, gewaltsam violent, wonnesam delightful, mühsam requiring laborious toil.

Note. Here *sam* touches close to *lich*, sometimes with no difference, sometimes with a greater or less variation of meaning, *sam* referring more to the inclination of the mind and character, and *lich* pointing more to the exterior nature of the thing in question: ein friedlicher Mensch a peaceful man, but ein friedliches Tal a peaceful valley; fittsam inclined to keep within the bounds of proper conduct, modest, but fittlich moral, concerning or conforming to the established code of morals. Other shades appear: wundersam (poetic for wunderbar) wonderful, wunderlich queer; ehrsam honorable (used to-day in a half comical sense), ehrlich honest, upright.

b. In a passive sense a possibility that the activity implied in the verbal stem may be performed, or in an active sense a possibility of performing it, or a natural inclination to do so: bildsam capable of being moulded, fashioned, biegsam flexible, wirksam efficacious, capable of making an effect, fleißsam becoming, folgsam willing to follow, obedient, schweigsam taciturn, sparsam saving, economical, störsam disturbing, apt to disturb.

Note. The suffixes *bar*, *lich*, and *sam* here touch close to each other in their passive meaning, sometimes blending entirely together, sometimes diverging. In *bar* lies often the general idea that something can be done, while *lich* implies sometimes more particularly that it can be done with reasonable ease: Hartes Fleisch ist vielleicht verdaubar, aber jedenfalls nicht verdaulich Tough meat can perhaps be digested, but at any rate it cannot easily be done. Somewhat different from *lich* is *sam*, which not only implies that the activity can be performed with fair ease, but also indicates that the reason for the easy performance lies in the nature of the object in question: Die Metalle sind dehnbar Metals are capable of being drawn out (into a wire, &c.), but Gold ist sehr dehnсам Gold is very ductile. Also when they have active force *sam* and *lich* have meanings more or less similar: empfindlich sensitive, empfindsam sentimental. Sometimes *bar* has passive, while *sam* has active force: furchtbar dreaded, dreadful, formidable (ein furchtbares Heer, Gewitter, also in weakened meaning: eine furchtbare Hitze), furchtsam fearing, timid, and, with a meaning differing somewhat from that of the former, fürchterlich instilling fear, horror (as in ein fürchterliches Geschrei, also in weakened meaning: ein fürchterlicher Geruch).

2. Affixed to a few adjectives, it denotes an inclination toward the quality indicated by the stem of the adjective or some condition associated with it: langsam slow, einsam lonely, gemeinsam joint, common. Differentiation takes place also here between adjectives in *lich* and *sam*: länglich oblong, langsam slow; (un)lieblich (un)lovely, liebсам (now little used) affectionate, unliebсам (not infrequent) unpleasant, disagreeable (unliebсames Aussehen erregen, unliebсame Erfahrungen machen).

13. **zig** (in the form of **ßig** in **dreißig**), formerly an independent noun with the meaning *decade*, related to **zeh̄n**, now used to form numeral adjectives: **zwanzig**, &c. In the lengthened form **ziger** it is also employed to form nouns and adjectives; see 121. 2. *b* and 5.

III. *Derivative Verbs.*

Derivative verbs, which are in most part weak, constitute by far the greatest number of German verbs. They cannot only be formed from simple words but also from compounds, as explained at length in 217. *a. b. c.*

The following suffixes are used in the formation of derivative verbs:

1. **en** (representing older **jan**, **ōn**, **ēn**), sometimes lengthened to **igen** after the analogy of the many verbs that have an **ig** in the stem preceding **en**, as **heiligen** to hallow, from **heilig** holy. Sometimes both of these forms may be added to the same stem without a shade of meaning, sometimes the one form is more common and the other more choice, sometimes a slight shade of meaning has developed: **beenden** or **beendigen** to end; **ſich erfunden**, or more commonly **erfundigen** to inquire; **kreuzen** to cross, **kreuzigen** to crucify; **reinigen** to cleanse, **reinigen** to clean. Derivatives with the prefix **be-** show a preference for the forms in **igen**; see 246. II. 1. *d. Note*. The same tendency is found in student slang: **berappigen** to *pay* for **berappen**.

A large number of these words suffer mutation (**ā** often appearing in the form of **ē**) of the stem-vowel, as they had a **j** in the suffix (**-jan**) in an earlier period of the language: **fällen** (**falljan**) to fell, **legen** (**lagjan**) to lay. Mutation has become very popular, spreading by analogy to words that originally had no **j**. Mutation is in general characteristic of transitives and the lack of it the mark of intransitives: **wärmen** to warm, make warm, but **erwärmen** to grow warm.

The following common groups illustrate the meaning and use of this suffix:

(1) Affixed to the past tense of intrans. str. verbs it makes a trans. factitive verb: **legen** to lay from **lag**, past tense of **liegen** to lie. See 197. A. *d*, and under each class of str. verbs (beginning at art. 198) for a full treatment of this interesting group of words.

Also other derivatives are formed from the gradation forms of strong verbs. For examples see 198. 2. Division, *c*.

(2) Affixed to the positive or comparative of modifying adjectives it is used:

(a) To make factitive verbs: **härten** to harden, **zähmen** to tame, **heizen** (from **heiß**; see 197. A. *d*) to heat, **befreien** (**frei**) to free; **vergrößern** (**groß**) to make larger, **verschlechtern** to make worse.

(b) To make verbs which denote a passing over into a condition or the condition itself: **faulen** to rot, **erwärmen** to grow warm, **lahmen** to be lame, **hungern** to be hungry.

(3) Affixed to sing. or pl. of nouns it denotes :

(a) An activity which is directed toward the object implied in the stem of the noun, or which is employed to produce or procure this object : *föpfen* to cut off the heads or tops, *er blättert* (from pl. of the noun) *im Buche* he is turning over the pages of the book, *locken* (from the sing.) to put in the lock-up, lit. hole, *durchlöchern* (from the pl.) to punch holes in, *bütern* to churn, *fischen* to fish.

(b) A working or busying oneself with the object implied in the stem : *pflügen* to plow, *eggen* to harrow, *meißeln* to chisel.

(c) In student slang verbs are made from nouns in the freest manner : *oefen* or *büßeln* to study hard (especially for examination), 'cram,' 'bone,' *holzen* to cane, *bettern* to drink freely, &c.

(4) It is sometimes affixed to other parts of speech :

(a) To particles : *bejahen* (ja) to answer affirmatively, *verneinen* to answer in the negative.

(b) To numerals : *vereinigen* to unite, *entzweien* to set at variance.

(c) To interjections : *juchhei'en* to call out *juchhei* (hurrah).

2. **eln** (O.H.G. *ilôn*), a suffix usually causing mutation, added to the stem of verbs, adjectives, and nouns, to express :

a. A diminutive idea : *lächeln* (lachen to laugh) to smile, *fränkeln* (frank sick) to be sickly, *rieseln* to drizzle, *nich fröstelt* (Frost frost) I am chilly. This idea naturally leads to the two following :

b. The idea of contempt for the activity or quality expressed in the stem : *liebeln* to dally, *frömmeln* to affect piety, *heucheln* to play the hypocrite. It is also added to nouns to indicate an activity which from association with the thing in question excites merriment or contempt : *näseln* to talk through the nose, *schwäbeln* to talk like a *Schwabe* *Swabian* (inhabitant of Württemberg).

c. The idea of interruptions in the activity, a short period of activity being followed by a short pause, hence the idea of the frequent occurrence and repetition of an activity : *betteln* to beg for a living, *winckeln* to whine, *streicheln* to stroke, *häfeln* to crochet, lit. to keep hooking.

3. **ern** (not to be confounded with the *ern* which arises from the addition of *n* to a comparative suffix or the pl. of a noun as mentioned in 1. (2). (a) and (3). (a) above), a suffix usually affixed to the stem of verbs to express :

a. The frequent repetition or the continuation of an action which is often conceived of as proceeding by jerks or with unsteady motion : *schmatern* to cackle (like geese), *stottern* to stutter, *flackern* to flicker, *klettern* to climb, lit. to keep on sticking, *plätschern* to splash, dabble.

Note. Here *eln* and *ern* approach each other very closely, some stems preferring the one suffix, other stems the other suffix. Where both suffixes may be added to the same stem *eln* expresses a weaker activity : *wandeln* to saunter along slowly, leisurely, *wandern* to go from one place to another, *auswandern* to emigrate ; *schütteln* to shake (hands, &c.), *erschüttern* to shake violently (as the earth in an earthquake, or the human frame under the influence of violent emotion).

b. The irresistible desire of doing that which is implied in the

stem, especially in use among the common people in impersonal constructions: *mich schläfert, trinkert, durstert, tanzt* I feel like going to sleep, &c.

c. In a few cases it makes factitive verbs: *folgern* to draw a conclusion, to conclude, lit. to make follow out of, *steigern* to raise (the price), to increase, lit. to make ascend.

4. *sen, schen, zen* with iterative force, *enzen* (or *eln*) denoting likeness or inclination: *mudsen* to mumble, *mutter* to one's self in complaint, *flatschen* to clap (with the hands), *ächzen* to groan, *grunzen* to grunt, *buzen* to address by *du thou*, *riechen'zen* (or *riecheln*) to smell of fish, *wilden'zen* to smell or taste of game, *polen'zen* to be fond of the Poles and their ways, *griechen'zen* to imitate the Greeks, *fau'lenzen* to idle away one's time.

5. *chen, cken, pfen*, suffixes which in reality are the strengthening of the final consonants of the stem to express a strengthening or intensification of the meaning of the stem: *horchén* (*hören* to hear) to listen, *büchén* (*biegen* to bend) to bow humbly, *rupfen* (*raufen* to pull) to pluck (a chicken).

6. *ie'ren* (from the Old French ending *ier*), a foreign suffix, hence the accent. It has no distinct meaning, but is only a formal sign of the infinitive, affixed not only to foreign stems but also to German: *regie'ren* to rule, *marschie'ren* to march; *buchstabe'ren* to spell, *stolz'e'ren* to strut.

a. From the last half of the twelfth century on, foreign, especially French verbs with this suffix began to appear, and later fairly swarmed into the language, assuming quite a stylish, aristocratic tone under the existing literary, political, and social supremacy of the French, but now for some time the tide has turned, and they are disappearing, and a number have sunk to the level of mere slang, or imply contempt, or mark something as being of a light, frivolous, "Frenchy" nature, as can be seen in the following ironical sentence from Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm*, 3, 2: *Es war ein ganzer Mensch! Er konnte frisieren und rasieren und parlieren* (palaver or here perhaps 'talk French,' 'parley voo') — und *charmieren* (flirt).

b. Notice that the German ending *en* is added to the foreign infinitive ending, so that there are in fact two endings in all these words. In O.H.G. the German infinitive ending was added to the stem of the foreign word: *tihtōn* (from Latin *dictare*) now *dichten*. Sometimes we have the older and newer formation side by side with differentiated meaning: *dichten* and *distieren*; *ordnen* (L. *ordinare*) and *ordinieren*; *opfern* (L. *operari*) and *operieren*; *spenden* (L. *spendere*) and *spendieren*, &c.

7. *is'e'ren*, a suffix corresponding in large part to the English *ize*: *modernisieren* to modernize, *tyrannisieren* to tyrannize, &c.

8. *ei'en*, a suffix corresponding to the foreign ending *ei* in nouns and the M.H.G. infinitive ending *igen*, *ien*. It has no distinct meaning: *prophezei'en* to prophesy, *fastei'en* to chastise, &c.

General Note. It should be noticed that all these verbal suffixes frequently appear in nouns, as the infin. of a verb is often used as a neut. abstract noun: *Das Gehen ermüdet. Sie konnte vor Schluchzen nicht sprechen.*

IV. *Derivative or Compound Adverbs.*

Most adverbs are particles which are derived from adjectives, participles, nouns, pronouns, and a few from verbs. Only a very few, as *ja* yes, were originally independent words. The commonest of the adverbs derived from other words may be divided into the following groups :

1. From adjectives and participles, by casting off the inflectional endings : *gut* well, *fühn* boldly, *trefflich* excellently, *gelehrt* learnedly, *ausgezeichnet* splendidly, *entzückend* charmingly, &c.

a. Adverbs cannot always be formed directly from limiting adjectives as they can from qualifying adjectives, and sometimes when there is an adverbial form corresponding to a limiting adj. they differ considerably in form, as the adv. is not formed directly from a case form of the adj., but both have been formed from a common stem, and in their development have drifted apart : *der* that, *da* there. Sometimes the limiting adj. is younger than the corresponding adverb, and has been formed directly from it by adding an adj. suffix : *damals* at that time, *der damalige Kaiser* the emperor at that time. See II. 9. 2. B, above.

b. Instead of assuming the simple uninflected form of the adj. or participle the adverb sometimes takes the form of a case of the adjective or participle, especially the gen. in *=s* : *rechts* to the right, *links* to the left, *anders* otherwise, *rückwärts* backwards, *bereits* *already*, but in South Germany *almost*, *zufehend* perceptibly, &c.

2. From adjectives, nouns, and sometimes other parts of speech by adding the suffixes *=e*, *=lich*, *=ling*, *=wärts* : *gerne* willingly, *endlich* finally, *meuchling* treacherously, *südwärts* southward, &c.

a. In a few instances there is still, as in M.H.G., a slight formal difference between the positive of adjectives and adverbs. The adverb adds *e* to the stem of the adjectives, or if the adjective has mutation the adverb is distinguished from it by taking no mutation ; see 222. 2. E. *Note*.

b. Some adverbs, especially those formed from adjectives in *ig*, were formerly distinguished from the corresponding adjectives by suffixing *=lich* : *traurig* (adj.), *trauriglich* (adv.). Also to-day a few of these formations in *=lich* are *only* used as adverbs, as *bekanntlich*, *ewiglich*, *fälschlich*, *freilich*, *gewaltiglich*, *gewißlich*, *höchlich*, *kürzlich*, *schwerlich*, *sicherlich*, *währlich*. A number of formations in *=lich* are adjectives only in form, and are in reality adverbs ; see II. 11. 2. A. *f* and B. *a*, above.

c. The adverbial suffix *=ling* (related to the masc. substantive suffix *=ling*) is suffixed to nouns, adjectives, verbal stems, prepositions, and adverbs to denote manner or indicate position or direction toward : *bauchling* lying flat on one's belly, *rückling* backward, *blindling* blindly, *ritling* astraddle, *vorling* forward. This suffix was common earlier in the period, often in the form *lingen* or *ling*, but is now restricted to a few words.

d. The suffix *wärts* denotes direction toward : *ostwärts*, *westwärts*, *vornwärts*, *sehwärts*, &c.

3. From nouns :

A. *a.* From the cases of nouns, especially the gen. : *Vormittags* in the forenoon, *teils* partly, *ringß* round about, *Donnerstags* on Thursdays, *rechter Hand* to the right hand, *unnötigerweise* unnecessarily ; and often with an *s* in the gen. in case of fem. nouns after the analogy of masculines : *meinerseits* on my part, *unserseits* on our part ; (in the acc.) *heim* home, *weg* (= M.H.G. *enweg*, i. e. *auf den Weg*) away, *ein bißchen* a little bit, *jeden Tag* every day, *ein Jahr* one year, &c. The genitive construction is treated more at length in 223. I. 10. *a*, II. 1, 2, 3, 4, III. *a*, IV. 2. A. *a, b, c*, B. *a, c, d*, C. *a*, VI, VII, XI ; the dative in 223. I. 10. *c*, II. 1, 2. *b*, III. *c* ; the accusative in 223. I. 10. *d*, II. 1. 3, IV. 2. A, B, C.

b. From nouns or adjective-substantives with a preceding governing prep. or a following particle : *übermorgen* day after tomorrow, *abhanden* removed from its proper place, *auf gut Glück* at random ; *bergauf* uphill, *jahrein*, *jahraus* year in, year out ; *bei weitem* by far, *vor allem* above all, &c.

c. From two nouns separated by *und* or a prep. : *Knall und Fall* suddenly, *Tag für Tag* day by day, *Arm in Arm* arm in arm.

B. Among the cases mentioned in A. *a* and *b* that are especially worthy of notice is a large group of adverbs formed from nouns which have lost their original meaning and force, and now form together with the verb a single idea. Such adverbial nouns in an oblique case after a preposition are now in force true compound adverbs, and can be distinguished from genuine nouns by the dropping of their article, and also by this that they no longer retain their original restricted literal meaning, but have taken on a much more general or a figurative one : *zu Bette gehen* to go to bed (not any especial bed, but in a general sense of *to sleep*), *zu Tage kommen* to come to light, in *See gehen* to *put to sea*, not any especial sea, but the broad ocean in contrast to land, *zu Grunde gehen* to go to ruin, *zuleide tun* to hurt, *aufßer acht lassen*, or *aufßer aller Acht lassen* to pay no attention to, *zu Herzen nehmen* to take to heart, &c. These adverbs are sometimes written with capitals, especially when a preceding inflected modifier reminds us of their originally substantive nature, but in many cases they are written with a small letter when the originally substantive nature is not distinctly felt. These adverbs are in force separable prefixes, and should be written in one word with the verb, but as yet this practice is not followed, and some fluctuation in usage in this respect occurs : *zu Grunde gehen*, or *zu grunde gehen*, or *zugrunde gehen* to go to wreck and ruin ; in *Stand setzen*, in *stand setzen*, or *instandsetzen* to put into working order, &c.

4. From pronominal stems : *wo* *where*, from the same stem as *wer* ; *da* *there*, *dann* *then*, both from the same stem as the demon. *der*.

5. From other particles : *Die Sonne heßt den Himmel auf*. *Ich habe ausgeschlafen* I have had my sleep out.

6. In composition with other particles : *dagegen* on the contrary, *hierin* in this, &c.

7. From verbs : *gelt* (= *es gelte*, pres. subj.) in the popular language of South Germany, expecting the confirmation of the speaker's

position, *isn't that true?* expressing assurance, *I say, I'm sure, indeed*, also as an introduction to an entreaty or command; *Gott weiß* God knows; *bewahre*, or *ei behüte*, or *Gott bewahre*, or *behüte* no, not at all.

V. Formation of Prepositions.

1. Prepositions may be divided into *pure* and *improper*.

A. *Pure* prepositions differ from improper in two points: 1. They cannot (except in compounds) be used as other parts of speech. The most of them (see *Note*) come from other parts of speech, but have in course of time been isolated from the parent stem by changes in form. None of them except *gemäß* (also an inflected adjective) are now ever used in their present form in any other function than that of prepositions, or the kindred parts of speech, adverbs and conjunctions, and hence are pure. 2. They can in most part enter freely into various compounds: *aufgehen*, *Aufgang*, *abtrünnig*, *schriftgemäß*, &c.

Note. The pure prepositions are: *ab*, *an*, *auf*, *aus*, *außer*, *bei*, *binnen*, *bis*, *durch*, *ehe* (in the one word *ehedem*, otherwise limited to the language of the common people), *entgegen*, *für*, *gegen*, *gegenüber* or *gen*, *gemäß*, *hinter*, *in*, *mit*, *nach*, *neben*, *nebst*, *ob*, *ohne*, *samt*, *seit*, *sonder*, *über*, *um*, *unter*, *von*, *vor*, *wider*, *zu*, *zuwider*, *zwischen*.

B. *Improper* prepositions are such as are also used as other parts of speech, and can enter into no compounds.

Note. The improper prepositions are those which in reality are: 1. Substantives: *statt*, *kraft*, *trog*, *mittels*, *seitens*, *zwecks*, *wegen*, &c.; see 228. 1. *a*, *b*, *c*, 2. 2. Adjectives or adverbs derived therefrom: *nächst* (superl. of *nahe*), *unweit*, *unfern*, &c. 3. Adverbs: *abwärts*, *seitwärts* to one side of, *nördlich* to the north of, *rechts* to the right of, &c. This group approaches often very near to the nature of pure prepositions, and can sometimes even enter into compounds; see 225. 1. *a*. 4. Of verbal origin: *während* (pres. part.), *ungeachtet* (perf. part.).

2. As can be seen above, prepositions are in part fossilized particles derived from various parts of speech. Another part of speech was pressed into service at first temporarily to show a relation between a verb and some other word. In course of time the feeling of its former function disappears, and the temporary office it has filled becomes a permanent one, and thus a new preposition has been added to the list. In other cases it is difficult to tell whether the word in question is a real prep., for it is also used at the same time in another function, but gradually the one word with the two functions develops into two forms, one for each function, and then the words drift apart. Thus new prepositions are constantly being formed. The following instances may serve to illustrate in brief the varied origin of prepositions. In an earlier period the comparative of the adj. was followed by the dat. (just as in the Latin by the ablative). Later this dat. construction after a comparative died out except in case of the two comparatives *ehe sooner than* and *seit farther on*. At present all feeling that they are comparatives is lost, but since they still as formerly govern the dat. they are construed as prepositions with the dat.

The latter of these words, *seit*, is now the common prep. *since*, and the former, *ehe*, is also felt as a prep., though only found written together with its dependent dat. in the one word *ehedem* *before that* in the literary language, but often heard thus as a prep. in the language of the common people in such expressions as *Ehe* (before) *Dienstag* *fann ich nicht kommen*. *Anstatt* or *statt* *instead of* are examples of recently formed prepositions, the word *Statt* still existing independently as a noun. When the two elements of *anstatt* are separated the latter element is distinctly felt as a noun, as also *Statt* when preceded by an article or other modifying word, and hence written with a capital letter: *an Kindes Statt* in place of a child (of one's own), *Gutes Wort findet eine gute Statt*, and *Ich bitte, es an meiner Statt zu tun*. When *an* and *statt* are found together the compound is felt rather as a prep., and is written with a small letter, and likewise *statt* when there is no article: *Und nun anstatt* or *statt des Vaters* *erschien die Mutter*. The prep. *neben* is compounded of the prep. *in* and *eben* *level*, and hence its meaning *on a level with, alongside of*.

246. FORMATION OF WORDS BY MEANS OF PREFIXES.

Only two classes of words—nouns and verbs—have especial prefixes. Adjectives and adverbs have their prefixes in common with verbs and nouns. These prefixes were once independent words, but have in course of time lost their identity as such, and have now no existence outside of compounds. In connection with the loss of their independence is the loss of accent. In nouns, however, all the prefixes except *ge* usually retain their former stress. For details concerning accent, see Art. 47.

I. Formation of Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns by means of Prefixes.

1. *ab* has two meanings :

- a. *Away, off*: *Abfahrt*, *Abreise*; *Abbild*, *Abdruck*.
- b. The idea of falseness, worthlessness, negation: *Abgott* idol, *Abfall* garbage, and in an earlier period *abholz* (= *Abfallholz*), *abewitze* (= *Unverstand*), &c.

2. *aber* has three meanings :

- a. It is still in early N.H.G. an independent word, meaning *again*: *Und der HERR rief Samuel aber zum dritten mal* (1 Sam. iii. 8). To-day *aber* is in this meaning rarely used as an independent word, and is now found only as a prefix in a few words, as *abermals* *once more, again*, *Aberfaat* second sowing. It has become more common, however, in the derived meanings of falseness, negation, perverseness: *Aberglaube* superstition, *Aberwitz* (= *Unverstand*), *Aber Sinn* stubbornness. The development of meaning here may be *again, back, opposed* or *opposite, false*: *abermals*, *Aberaltern* (Swiss = *Urahnen*), *Aber-*

wille (= Widerwille), *Überpapst* anti-pope, *Überwitz*, *Überglauze*. Others explain the meanings *falseness* and *negation* by regarding *aber* as a corrupted form of *ab* (see I. b, above). A relation between these two groups has in fact existed, the *aber* group growing at the expense of the *ab* group.

b. It expresses something different, a contrast, in the conjunction *aber* *but*, *however*.

c. In a few words *aber* is a corrupted form of *ober* *upper*, *higher*: *Überacht* a ban which has been proclaimed again and made more severe, lit. a higher ban.

3. *after* (identical with Eng. *after*), which is now prefixed to only a few nouns, participles, and adjectives, has the meanings *behind*, *after* in their literal, local, or temporal sense, and also in their applied meanings *inferior*, *false*: *Asterbürge* *one who stands behind another as security*, *Asterrede* *talk behind one's back*, *calumny*, *Astermutter* *step-mother*, *Asterkritiker* *would-be critic*, *Astergröße* *false greatness*; *aftergelehrt* *having a superficial knowledge*, *afterweise* *would-be wise*.

4. *ant* (the full form corresponding to the unaccented *ent*, *emp*; see II. 2, below), prefixed now only to two nouns *Antwort* *answer* and *Antlitz* poetic word for *face*. Here the prefix denotes *toward* or *against*.

5. *et*, prefixed to a few pronouns in order to convey to them a general or indefinite meaning: *etwas* *something*, *etlich* *some*, *several*.

6. *erz* (= Eng. *arch*-, Gk. *ἀρχι-*), prefixed to nouns (1) to denote the leader of a class: *Erzbischof* *archbishop*, *Erzengel* *archangel*, *Erzherzog* *archduke*, *Erzpriester* *archpriest*, *Erzvater* *patriarch*, &c.; (2) to convey intensifying force: *Erzdieb* *arrant thief*, *Erzdemokrat* *radical democrat*, *Erzdummkopf* *regular blockhead*, *Erzlügner* *infernal liar*, *arch-liar*, &c. It is also added to adjectives to convey intensifying force: *erzdumm* *extremely stupid*, *erzfaul* *very lazy*, *erzkatholisch* *ultra-catholic*, &c. For accent of these substantive and adjective derivatives see 47. 2. B. a and *Note* thereunder.

7. *ge*, prefixed to the stem of nouns and verbs to denote:

a. A collective idea: *Gebirge* *mountain-system*, *Gebüsch* *thicket of bushes*, *Gesinde* *all the servants of a household*, *Gebrüder* *two or more brothers of a family*.

b. A person engaged with another in the activity mentioned in the stem: *Gefährte* *a fellow-traveller*, *Gespieler* *play-mate*.

c. The idea of a collection or association naturally passes over into that of repetition, duration, that which is connected in order of time: *Gezwitscher* *chirping*, *Geplauder* *conversation*. Here the idea of duration or repetition may be unpleasant, and hence *ge* often takes on the meaning of disparagement, contempt; see 83. b.

d. In a large number of nouns *Ge-* has not a meaning that is clearly felt to-day: *Gegenwart* *present*, *Gehäuse* *case*, *Gewalt* *power*, &c. In adjectives its force is in general scarcely appreciable, as the stem-word is in most cases lost: *genug* *enough*, *genehm* *acceptable*, *gesund* *healthy*, &c. In a few cases where the stem-word is also in use a shade of meaning develops between the stem-word and the

derivative: *treu* true (as in *ein treuer Freund*), but *getreu* loyal (to a ruler), true (dem Original *getreu*), close (eine *getreue Übersetzung*), faithful (eine *getreue Nachbildung*); *streng* strict, severe, but *gestreng* in use earlier in the period to address persons of noble rank, especially such as have the power of life and death over subjects, as in *gestrenger Herr Your Worship*.

8. *miß* (in M.H.G. *misse*, which still survives in *Missetat*, cognate with Eng. *mis*, as in *mistake*), prefixed in most part to stems having an abstract meaning to denote :

a. The opposite of that contained in the stem : *Missgunst* disfavor, *Missfallen* displeasure; *mißfällig* displeasing, unpleasant, &c.

b. Something wrong, erroneous, defective, unsuccessful, bad : *Missstand* abuse, *Missheirat* *mésalliance*, *Missverständnis* misunderstanding, *Misson* dissonance, *Missernte* bad crop, *Missetat* misdeed; *mißgestaltet* misshapen, *mißtönend* ill-tuned, discordant.

9. *un* (cognate with English *un-*), prefixed to the stem of nouns to denote :

a. The opposite of that mentioned in the stem or mere negation or lack : *Undank* ingratitude, *Unart* naughtiness, *Unsinn* nonsense, *Unverstand* want of judgment. It is also prefixed to adjectives with the same force : *undankbar*, &c. For accent in these substantive and adjective derivatives see 47. 2. B. a and *Note* thereunder.

b. Something defective, bad, aside from the regular and usual, unnatural, hence sometimes repulsive, contemptible, also something worthless, unpleasant : *Unrat* (often *Untätchen*) spot, blemish, *Unsitte* bad custom, *Unkosten* *transportation charges*; that is, charges aside from the regular price of the goods, also *disagreeable expenses*, *Unmensch* a brutish person, *Unnatur* that which is contrary to nature, *Unland* land swampy and good for nothing, *Unkraut* weeds, *Ungeziefer* vermin, *Unwetter* bad, stormy weather.

c. A strong intensification of the idea contained in the stem, however, with indefinite force so that the extent of the idea is not accurately defined : eine *Unmenge* or *Unmasse* *Menschen* a great crowd of people, eine *Unzahl* *Maikäfer* a great number of may-bugs, ein *Untier* a monster, *Unsummen* vast sums of money, *Untiefe* a *great depth*, a *deep place in a river*, or according to a, above, just the reverse, a *shoal*.

10. *ur* (full form corresponding to unaccented *er*; see II. 3, below), a prefix originally meaning *out*, which can still be seen in its present signification, *the extreme*, in the direction of the beginning, source, from which or out of which a thing may come, or of the end of something, literally the coming out of some condition : *Urwald* primeval forest, *Urgroßvater* great-grandfather, *Urvölker* aborigines, *Uranfang* first beginning, *Urenkel* great-grandson, *Ursheimat* original home, *Urseide* oath to put an end to a feud.

a. In most words *ur* is long, but in *Urteil* *judgment*, *sentence*, it is short.

b. The idea of *the extreme* has in adjectives given to *ur* intensifying power : *uralt* very old, *urplötzlich* very sudden, all of a sudden, *urfräftig* extremely powerful.

II. *Formation of Verbs by means of Prefixes.*

1. **be** (related to the prep. *bei*) has two general meanings, *around* and *by, on, upon, over*. Originally *be* was also a preposition, as can still be seen in *behen'de* (= M.H.G. *behende* = *bei der Hand*) *quick, nimble*. Originally this preposition governed also the acc., and this former construction still occurs in composition with intransitive verbs, where the compound takes an object in the acc. which is in fact the object of the preposition *be*; see *a* below.

The original local meanings of *be* are no longer vividly felt, but out of them distinct groups of applied meanings have been developed. The main uses of this suffix are:

a. To bring the action expressed in intransitive verbs to bear *upon* some object, and change thereby intransitive verbs into transitive: *Sie weint she weeps*, but *Sie beweint den Tod ihrer Mutter*, or *beweint ihre Mutter she is mourning over the death of her mother*, or *weeping over her mother*. *Furcht und Entsetzen befällt mich Fear and horror seize me*.

b. In composition with verbs already trans., to bring the action to bear *upon* some object or extend the force of the action entirely *over* something: *Sie begießt die Blumen She is watering the flowers*. *Der Landmann bebaut (cultivates) das Feld*.

Note. Observe that the object of the simple verb often becomes in this construction a dative after the prep. *mit*: *Die Arbeiter laden Getreide auf das Schiff The workmen are loading grain on to the ship*, but *Die Arbeiter beladen das Schiff mit Getreide*.

c. To give intensifying force to the simple verb, which force naturally comes from the idea of the extension of the action *over* the whole object: *Wir besehen die Statue We are examining the statue*.

d. In composition with adjectives, to indicate that the attribute in question is bestowed upon or put *in, on, over* something: *feucht moist, befeuchten to moisten*; *ruhig calm, beruhigen to calm*; *reicher richer, bereichern to enrich*. Thus *befchleunigen to hasten*, *betrüben to grieve*, *belustigen to amuse*, &c.

Note. Some verbs are formed after the analogy of those derived from adjectives in *ig*, and thus end in *igen*, although there is no *ig* in the stem from which they are formed: *beedigen (be + Eid)*, *beerdigen (be + Erde)*, *befriedigen*, *befräftigen*, *benachrichtigen*, &c.

e. In composition with nouns to indicate that that which is implied by the noun is bestowed upon some one or that something or somebody is supplied, furnished, endowed with what is contained in the noun: *Laub foliage, besaufen to furnish with foliage*; *Saite string (of an instrument), besaiten to furnish with strings*; *Seele soul, life, befeelen to put life into, animate*.

f. There is also an ironical application of the idea *over, on* in some verbs formed from adjectives or nouns: *Ich bin elend! Ach was, ich will dich bee'lenden! I feel miserable! What, I will give you*

something to make you feel miserable about. Sie behauptet, sie sei die Frau Junkern (245. I. 6. b), aber ich will sie junkern, daß sie an mich denken soll She pretends to be Mrs. Junker, but I will 'junk' her so that she will remember me. Was Latein? (What! you want to study Latin?) ich will dich Knirps belateinen (Raabe's *Hungerpastor*, chap. 5).

g. Although the decided tendency has been toward use with transitive verbs, it is nevertheless still used with a few intransitives with the same general meanings. Out of the idea of *nearness* has developed the idea of rest *by*, *in* or *on* a thing, *in* a condition or a *close approach* to: be(se)iben to remain, beharren (Er beharrt auf seiner Meinung) to stand firmly by, beruhen to rest upon, bestehen to insist upon, beghen to be agreeable to, to afford comfort or pleasure to, bekommen to agree with (one's health, &c.; originally used of plants in the sense *to come up*, *spring up*, *flourish*, which meaning still survives in early N.H.G.), begegnen to meet, &c.

h. In a number of verbs be seems to have privative force—a meaning which stands in strong contrast to the usual one: benehmen to take from, bestehlen to steal from, berauben to rob, begrasen to eat or browse the grass off of (a meadow, &c.), beholzen to clear the timber off of, berahmen to skim the cream off of. This meaning did not originally lie in the prefix itself, but was contained in the meaning of the verb, as in the first three examples. After the analogy of such verbs other verbs were formed, especially derivations from nouns in which the stem designated the thing taken away, as in the last three examples.

2. **ent** (or **emp** before a few verbs in initial f), which is found in its original form **ant** only in Antwort and Antlig, is identical with Latin *anti* and hence meant originally *toward*, *against*. This meaning can now only be found in a few words: entbieten to send to, entgelten to pay for, atone for, enthalten to contain, entsprechen to answer, correspond to, empfangen to receive, empfehlen to recommend, empfinden to feel, be sensible of.

The following derivative meanings are now more common:

a. From the original meaning of movement toward comes that of a beginning of an activity, a change, a passing into a new state or condition: entbrennen to take fire, become inflamed, entstehen to arise, originate, entzünden to inflame, entfachen, to enkindle, entschlummern to fall asleep (in death), entleeren to empty, entlösen to lay bare, strip, entledigen to get rid of, &c. As can be seen from the examples the basal part of such verbs is either a verb or an adjective. Verbs of this class of meanings are called inchoatives.

Note 1. The prefix **ent** of inchoatives formed from adjectives has the same force as **er** in 3. b, below, but is much less widely used, as it is largely confined to adjectives of a pronounced negative meaning, which is now so generally associated with **ent**, as explained in b. Hence these inchoatives are not felt as pure inchoatives, but rather as privatives, and in fact are usually associated with the group in b.

Note 2. The prefix of a number of the verbs in this group whose basal element is a verb is in fact the modern corrupted form of O.H.G. *in* (identical with N.H.G. prep. *in*) *toward*, *into*, which was closely related in meaning to the original force of **ent**, and in certain verbs became confounded with it, as *int* (the O.H.G. form of **ent**) was itself often used in the corrupted form of *in*.

b. A change is not only a movement in the direction of that which is new, but is also a breaking away from the old, hence in general *separation, removal*, now the most common meaning: *entreißen* to snatch away from, *entkommen* to escape, *entfagen* to renounce, *entgleiten* to slip out of; *entblättern* to strip of leaves, *enthaupten* to decapitate, *entthronen* to dethrone, *entfräften* to enervate. As can be seen from the examples, the basal part of such verbs may be a verb or noun. Verbs of this class of meanings are called privatives. For comparison of this meaning of *ent* with its synonyms, see 223. I. 7. H.

c. Intimately related to the preceding is the idea of *reversal*, denoting the opposite of the simple verb: *ehren* to honor, but *entehren* to dishonor; *laden* to load, but *entladen* to unload; *ſiegeln* to seal, but *entſiegeln* to unseal.

d. With the idea of separation there is often associated the idea of a careful, systematic or natural unfolding or division: *entwirren* to disentangle, *entwickeln* to unravel, develop, *entfalten* to unfold, develop, *entwerfen* to sketch, map out, lit. to throw or take apart, *entfallen* to fall to one's regular share, &c. This meaning stands in marked contrast to that in *b*, which usually contains the idea of violent or unnatural separation. The idea of care and system did not originally lie in *ent* but in the verb itself, as in the first examples. From these verbs the idea may have become attached to the prefix and then spread to other verbs.

3. *er*, which is found in its original form *ur* only in nouns and adjectives, originally meant *from within out, out of*, and building upon this has developed a rich store of shades, all of which can easily be brought into connection with the fundamental meaning.

a. In its original literal sense or much more frequently its figurative application, but only dimly felt if felt at all: *erpreſſen* to press out (wine out of grapes), extort, *erziehen* to educate, lit. to draw out, *erbauen* to edify, *erheben* to elevate the thought or feeling, *erschöpfen* to exhaust, *ſein Inneres erſchließen* to disclose one's feelings, &c.

b. The original meaning gradually lost its distinct local force and then developed either inchoative or perfective force, that is, the idea of motion *from within outward* passed, on the one hand, into that of *change or transition* into a state or condition, or, on the other hand, into the idea of the *result or outcome* of an action: (inchoatives) *erblühen* to come out into blossom, *erwachen* to wake up (intrans.), *erweden* to wake (trans.), *ermüden* to become tired, *erwarmen* to grow warm, *erblinden* to grow blind, *erröten* to blush, *ſich ermannen* to summon up courage; (perfectives) *erleben* to live to see, *erliegen* to succumb (the action resulting in somebody's lying down, i. e. giving up), *erlöſchen* to become extinguished, &c. As can be seen from the examples, the basal part of such verbs may be a verb, adjective, or, less commonly, a noun. Also *ver* in composition with verbs derived from nouns and adjectives has inchoative force; see 5. C. *b. Note*, below.

The derivatives with *er* often stand in a more or less marked

contrast to their simple verbal forms, the simple verb representing an action in its duration, the derivative form representing only a particular point in the course of the action, namely, the entrance into the state or condition, or the outcome or result of the action: *grünen to be or remain green*, but *ergrünen to become green*; *wachen to be awake, watch*, but *erwachen to wake up*; *wählen to choose* (i. e. the entire act, including the period of deliberation and the final act of settling upon a choice), but *erwählen to select, elect, choose* (referring only to the resulting choice, excluding the preceding period of deliberation). Ich sterbe, sterbe, und kann nicht ersterben (Goethe's *Götz*, 5, 10). The derivative form often has a figurative application, while the simple verb has its literal meaning: *sättigen to satisfy* (one's stomach, &c.), but *ersättigen to satisfy* (one's longings, &c.); *weichen to soften* (leather, &c.), but *erreichen to soften* (the heart, feelings, &c.). In some cases the distinction of meaning between the simple verb and the derivative is very faint.

Note. In inchoatives *er* often represents the change as coming from within from inner causes: *Litmuspapier in Säure getaucht wird rot* *Litmus-paper, dipped into an acid, becomes red*, but *Das Mädchen erröthet vor Scham* *the girl blushes* (lit. turns red) *for shame*.

c. The original idea and the more common one of result can be clearly seen in such expressions as *etwas erfragen to get something out of one by questioning*. From such expressions comes the very common meaning of getting, obtaining something in the manner described by the simple verb: *erflehen to get by entreaty*, *erstürmen to get something by storm*, as a city, &c., *erstreiten to get by fighting*, *ergaunern to obtain by knavish tricks*, *erreichen to obtain by reaching*, to reach (a river, a town, &c.). Compare the force of the simple verb with that of the derivative in the following: *Das Kind reichte nach den Früchten, aber es konnte sie nicht erreichen*.

d. *Er* refers in so many cases where a result is expressed to the life within, as in *erbittert embittered*, *erfrischen to refresh the inner man*, *erlösen to save the soul from sin*, &c., that it is associated in general with the vital forces, and when placed before certain verbs it indicates that the person died or was killed in the manner described by the simple verb: *erdolchen to stab to death*, *erdroffeln to throttle*, *erschießen to kill by shooting*, *erschlagen to kill by striking*, *ertrinken to drown*, *erlegen* (hunter's expression) *to kill*, lit. *to lay out dead*, *erdrücken to press to death*, &c.

e. In accordance with the original meaning of *from within out* and the more common meaning of *a result*, there is a distinction made between *freuen* and *erfreuen*. The former is used of some *thing*, the existence of which merely *occasions* us joy, the latter of some *body* or *thing* that working from within outward, i. e. intentionally or by virtue of inherent qualities, *produces* joy: *Es freut mich, Sie zu sehen*, but *Erfreuen Sie mich doch mit einer Antwort*, *Ein weiser Sohn erfreut den Vater*, and *Der Wein erfreut das Herz*. The reflexive *sich erfreuen* (an, w. dat.) expresses a warmer, deeper interest than *sich freuen* (über, w. acc.). The participle *gefremt* is not

used adjectively, because it is here the question of a result: *Er ist darüber erfreut, not gefreut.*

4. *ge* denotes a collection or union (of persons, or things, or related parts). This meaning, so common in nouns, as in *Gebirge a chain or system of mountains*, *Geläut a chime of bells*, is now only rarely found in verbs: *gerinnen* to coagulate, lit. to run compactly together, *gefrieren* to freeze. More common are the following derived meanings:

a. Like *er* (see 3. b, above), though now much less common, *ge* is used to represent a particular point in the course of an action, namely, the entrance into a state or condition, or the outcome, or result of the action: *gebrechen* to *lack*, originally meaning in its impersonal form *es gebriecht there arises a breakage, a loss*, hence *a lack*; *M.H.G. bern* (now no longer used) to *carry, bear*, *gebären* to *give birth to*, referring to the result. From the idea of a *collection, association, or a result* comes the intensified notion of completeness, permanence, perfection, in a number of verbs: *denken* to think of, *gedenken* to think of often, hold in remembrance, *bear* in mind, *loben* to praise, *geloben* to promise, lit. to praise thoroughly or approve something which has been proposed; *horden* to hearken, *gehorden* to hearken to faithfully, hence to obey. The idea of perfection, completeness is most commonly found in the *ge* of the perfect participle: *Er hat einen Brief geschrieben*. A few verbs which of themselves convey the idea of an entrance into a state or of the result of an action, such as *werden* and *kommen*, did not formerly take the *ge* in the participle and are even treated so still in popular language. In case of verbs accented upon the first syllable, only the participial form *worden* is now without *ge* in the literary language, and then only in its use as an auxiliary in the passive. Thus the force of the prefix in participles has been lost, as it is prefixed to most perfect participles as a part of its regular participial form, whether the meaning of the verb would admit of it or not. Certain groups of words, however, have not yet assumed the *ge* in the participle. The prefixes *ge*, *er*, *be*, *ver*, *ent*, *zer*, have of themselves in greater or less degree perfective force, and hence derivatives formed from them do not prefix *ge* in the participle. Also all other verbs unaccented upon the first syllables now, contrary to earlier usage, follow their example, as they are influenced by their accent: *studiert'* (not *gestudiert*), *posaunt'*, &c.; see also 178. 2. A. b. (1), (2), (3). For further suppression of *ge* in the participle in S.G. see c. (2), below.

b. The idea of coincidence, completeness, permanence, naturally gave rise to the idea of succeeding or doing something satisfactorily: *gefallen* to please, lit. to fall together with, coincide with (one's wishes), *gedeihen* to prosper, *gelingen* to be successful, *genesen* to recover (from sickness), *geraten* to turn out well, *gewinnen* to win, *geziemen* to besit. The lines of development, however, are here, as also often elsewhere, not so evident as this treatise seems to indicate, for the paths of the mind are not always clearly open to view. Thus in case of *gefallen* the *ge* may have perfective force and the

verb be used much as 'strike' in English, so that *Wie gefällt es Ihnen?* has the force of *How does it strike you?*

c. In a number of words all feeling of the meaning of the prefix has been lost, and in general it has in connection with verbs ceased to be productive and is frequently a mere fossil. This can be seen : (1) from the fact that in some cases the simple verb has been lost and now the compound alone exists : *gesehen, geschehen, &c.* (2) In a number of words, especially those whose stem begins with l, r, or n, the vowel of the prefix is suppressed and is no longer felt : *glauben, gönnen, &c.* In S.G. the *e* of the prefix in the perfect participle is usually suppressed and often the *g* is assimilated to the following consonant, so that the prefix is felt little or not at all : *gesehen, träumt* for *gewesen, geträumt*. On the other hand, its force in the group in *b* must be dimly felt, for when *miß*, which means the very opposite of *ge*, is added the *ge* is dropped : *gefallen*, but *mißfallen* ; *gesingen*, but *mißsingen* ; *geraten*, but *mißraten*. Notice also : *gebieten*, but *verbieten*.

5. **ver** is a very common prefix with meanings not always clearly defined and sometimes even contradictory. This is accounted for by the fact that it represents three older prefixes—Gothic *fra*, *faur*, *fair*—with all their meanings.

A. Groups of meaning corresponding to those of Gothic *fra* :

a. The commonest meaning seems to be that of *away, forth* : *verlaufen* to pass away (of time, &c.), *verreisen* to go away on a journey, *verschenken* to give away, *verjagen* to chase away, *vergeben* to forgive, lit. give away, let (a fault) go by, *verkaufen* to give away in exchange for something, to sell.

b. The idea of *away* may lead to that of the *end, exhaustion, entire consumption of, even waste, and reckless and lavish use of* : *verblühen* to come to an end of blooming, *verschmerzen* to get over something (as sorrow, &c.), *verhallen* to die away (of a sound), *verbluten* to bleed to exhaustion or death, *versümmern* to waste away, *verhungern* to die of starvation, *verbrennen* to burn (something) up, *verbrauchen* to use up, *versaufen* to squander away in drink, *verschlafen* to sleep (precious time, &c.) away, *vertändeln* to trifle away.

c. The idea of *away* may lead to that of loss, destruction, error, excess, spoiling, perversion, and the reversal of the meaning of the simple verb : *verwirren* to forfeit, *verderben* to destroy, *verdrucken* to misprint, *sich verrechnen* to make a mistake in figures, *verschreiben* to write incorrectly, *sich verschreiben* (as in *Ich habe mich verschrieben* *It's a mere slip of the pen*) to make a mistake in writing, *sich versprechen* (as in *Ich habe mich versprochen* *It was a mere slip of my tongue*) to make a mistake in speaking, *sich verlaufen* to lose one's way, *versüttern* to over-feed, *versalzen* to spoil by over-salting, *verführen* to mislead, seduce, *verraten* to betray, *verachten* to despise, opposite of *achten*, *verkennen* to misjudge, *verlernen* unlearn, forget (little by little), *verkehren* to turn upside down, &c.

d. The idea of *loss* (see c) may be applied figuratively to the *loss of individuality and independence*, and this may lead to the idea of *close fusion, union* : *vermischen* to mix all up, confound, blend, *sich*

verloben to become engaged (to be married), lit. to promise one's self away, sich verlieben to fall in love, verheiraten to give away in marriage, verbinden to join, verschmelzen to melt together, verwachsen to grow together, verzahnen to dovetail, verketten to link together, &c.

B. Groups of meanings corresponding to Gothic *faur* :

a. *To ward off*: verbieten to forbid, verbitten to insist upon something not being done, versagen to deny, refuse.

b. *To cover, conceal, protect, care for, prevent, hinder*: verdecken to cover, vernageln to nail up, verschließen to lock up, verstopfen to stop up, verschütten to cover up (a ditch, &c.) with (earth, &c.), verbergen to hide, verfechten to stand up for, fight for, verantworten to answer for, be responsible for, vertreten to take the place of, represent, versorgen to provide for, verhüten to prevent, vergittern to enclose with a grating, verschleiern to veil, &c. In a number of these verbs the protecting, covering object is indicated in the stem of the verb as in the last examples.

Note. Also *be* has a similar meaning. It has, however, only the general idea of *over, upon*, while *ver* implies that the covering is to protect or conceal: bedecken to cover (the earth, &c., with snow, &c.), verdecken to cover (one's face, to remove it from the observation of others, or to conceal one's feeling), to conceal (one's intentions, &c.).

C. Groups of meanings corresponding to Gothic *fair* :

a. Prefixed to verbs *ver* often intensifies the verbal meaning, indicates that the activity is sustained to the end, meets with successful issue or is directed with energy to a certain goal or end: verbleichen to grow pale in death, verbleiben to remain until the end, verlesen to read (a roll of names, &c.) to the end, vernehmen to perceive, lit. to take a firm hold of (with the senses), verfangen to operate, take effect, avail, lit. to catch a good hold on, verhelfen to help some one to get something, lit. to help so effectually that the object is attained, verfolgen to pursue (a course, design, &c.), verhandeln to negotiate, transact, &c.

b. A change, transformation into a state or thing indicated usually by some adjective or noun which forms the stem of the verb: verarmen to grow poor, vereinfachen to simplify, verdeutschen to translate into German, veredeln to ennoble, verdicken to thicken, vergolden to gild, versumpfen to become like a swamp, stagnant, vergittern to deify, idolize, verfegern to brand as a heretic, verfilbern to cash.

Note. Also *er* has the meaning of a change or transformation into a state or thing, some verbs preferring *er*, others *ver*: erhöhen, but vertiefen; erweitern, but verengen; sich ermannen, but sich vernarren. In a number of cases *ver* has supplanted *er* since early N.H.G.: in early N.H.G. erarmen, erschauen, ergrößen, erhungern, &c., all now with *ver*. In other cases *er* has supplanted *ver*, as in erschrecken. In dialect, however, the form may be preserved that has been rejected in the literary language: Er ist ganz verschreckt (Uschei in Marriot's *Der geistliche Tod*, chap. vi). Except in a few cases *ver* is now used exclusively in case of verbs formed from nouns: versteinern, verwässern, &c. There is a slight shade of difference in meaning between verbs with *er* and those with *ver*; not always, however, can the difference be seen. Those with *er* represent the transformation as a process of development, while those with *ver* represent it as a final result: ergrünen to grow green (of the grass), but verewigen to immortalize, versteinern to petrify.

c. It converts a few intransitives into transitives, as it, in accordance with the meaning in *a*, directs the activity against an object: *verlachen* to *deride*, from *lachen* to *laugh*; *verspotten* to *scoff at, ridicule*, from *spotten* (w. gen.) to *scoff at*; *verfluchen* to *curse*, from *fluchen* to swear.

d. Differentiations of various kinds arise between the simple verb and the derivative: *schreiben* to write, *verschreiben* to order by letter, as in *Ich habe das Buch aus Leipzig verschrieben*; *suchen* to seek, *versuchen* to try, attempt; *wenden* to turn, *verwenden* to apply, bestow, employ, &c.

6. **wider** against and very rarely *back*: *widersprechen* (w. dat.) to contradict, *widerlegen* to refute, *widerstehen* (w. dat.) to resist, *widerrufen* to retract, call back.

7. **zer** denotes separation, a breaking to pieces, dissolution, a scattering: *zerbrechen* to break to pieces, *zerschneiden* to carve, *zerfleischen* lacerate, *zerfließen* to melt away, *zerstreuen* to scatter.

8. **miß**. A. This is a very productive prefix, expressing failure, error, something false or the opposite of the simple verb: *mißlingen* to fail of success, *mißdeuten* to interpret falsely, *mißfallen* to displease, *mißbilligen* to disapprove of, *mißgönnen* to begrudge, the opposite of *gönnen* to be glad to see somebody have something.

B. The meaning of *miß* causes no trouble, but its accent in composition with verbs has become double, either strongly accented or unaccented, and is hence treated as a separable or inseparable prefix. In the main, however, even though accented, it is not separated from the verb in the literary language except by *zu* and *ge* in the infinitive and participle, where sometimes three forms can be found for the one word: *zu mißdeuten*, *zu miß'deuten*, *miß'zudeuten*; *mißdeu'tet*, *gemiß'deutet*, *miß'gedeutet*. Thus the infinitive and participle can be treated as separable or inseparable verbs, and the participle may in addition be treated as if made from a compound noun (see 217), and indeed this form may have had its origin in a compound noun, as *gemiß'braucht* from *Miß'brauch*, and then have spread by analogy to the others. The prefix was originally unaccented, but its newer use of placing the derivative in contrast to the simple verb naturally resulted in shifting in such cases the accent upon the prefix in accordance with its logical importance. Such participial forms as *miß'gedeutet*, &c., are after the analogy of adjectives and adjective participles such as *miß'gelaunt* *ill-humored*, which (see 47. 2. B. c. bb) uniformly accent the prefix. Thus the prefix after the analogy of such participial adjectives and also from its logical importance was in the participial form at times separated from the verb by *ge*, which led to the idea that it was separable and consequently to the placing of *zu* between prefix and verb in the infinitive. While these verbs which accent the prefix are often used in the form of the participle (used adjectively or in compound tenses) and infinitive, they cannot be thus so freely used in simple tenses in principal propositions, as the natural feeling of the inconsistency between the accent and the non-separation of the prefix usually suggests the avoidance

here of such verbs and their use only in places where as separable verbs they would not be separated, namely, in subordinate clauses: not *Man miß'greife nicht* *Let one not make a false move*, but *Man achte darauf, daß man nicht miß'greife*. The simple tenses of a number of these verbs, however, are used also in principal propositions, usually with fluctuating accent: *Er miß'deu'tet* or *miß'deutet* *es*.

a. The prefix *miß* is usually accented in compounds in which it stands before the unaccented prefix of an inseparable verb: *miß'verstehe*n. Such verbs are freely used as inseparable verbs even in simple tenses in principal propositions, although the accented prefix would suggest the separation here of verb and prefix: *O wie miß'verstehe*n Sie mich! In the infinitive of such verbs, however, the *zu* usually stands after *miß*: *miß'zubehe*gen, *miß'zuverste*hen. The perfect participle of course has no *ge*: *miß'verstan*den.

b. Intransitives are more liable to take the accent upon the prefix than transitives: *Es ist doch dumm, daß ihm der letzte Streich miß'glück't* ist (Goethe's *Götz*, I. 1), but also: *Etwas ist miß'geglück't* (Moritz Heyne). *Ich habe schimpflich miß'gehandelt* (Goethe), usually however in transitive use: *Er hat mich miß'han'delt*. But also with accent upon the prefix in transitive use in conformity with the general irregularity here: *miß'gehandelt* (*Faust*, II. 5. l. 6470). *Und wen haben sie dergestalt gemiß'handelt?* (Raabe's *Schüdderump*, chap. 24). *Ihr bösen Affen, | wie habt meinen Garten ihr miß'geschaffen?* (Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, I, 22).

c. Though the prefix is in general only separated in the above-mentioned cases, there is a slight tendency toward complete separation, as can be occasionally heard in facetious or sarcastic language: *O wie verstehe*n Sie, mein Vater, mich einmal wieder recht gründlich *miß*! (Immermann's *M.*, 2. 5).

COMPOUNDS.

FORMATION OF COMPOUND WORDS.

Definition and Nature of a Compound.

247. A compound is a word formed by the close union of two or more words whose meanings blend so thoroughly as to produce one single idea. The natural tendency is to distinctly mark this oneness of meaning by a oneness in form, that is, by writing together the different words of a compound: *Dampfschiffahrt* steam-navigation. Languages differ in the accuracy with which they distinctly mark compounds as such by writing the parts in one word. German, though more careful than English in this respect, often, as is discussed in 249, fails to recognize the distinct unity in a group of words: *alt und jung* old and young = *jedermann* everybody, *die heilige Schrift* Holy Writ = *die Bibel* Bible, *kaltes Blut* sang-froid = *Kaltblütigkeit*. For exceptions to the general rule that the components of a compound form one single idea, see 249. II.

a. In German the inflection often forces the recognition of a true compound where in English such is not the case, as in ein Königssohn a king's son. In the German compound the form of the article shows that it agrees with the second element of the component, for if it agreed with the first it would be einē. Hence, as the second element determines the gender of a compound, the word must be evidently a true compound, although it is not so recognized in English. Aside from this mere formal principle, compounds are much more common in German, and of much greater length than in English, sometimes of colossal proportions, as Eisenbahnbauuntersuchungskommission a body appointed to investigate the questions concerning the building of railroads. Such compounds though often ridiculed are nevertheless common, and not without their decided advantages, for they, in a certain sense, tersely give the substance of a whole sentence.

Parts of a Compound.

248. A. Though a compound may consist of two words or several, it can as a rule have only two component elements—the *basal component*, which contains the more general idea, and the *modifying component*, which contains the more special meaning, usually some *essential* modification of the meaning of the basal component, and hence accented: *Zweig*'=*eisenbahn* a branch railroad, *Va*'*terlands*-*liebe* love of native land. Each element can thus be either simple or compound. The exceptions to the rule that a compound has but two components are found in **249. II. 2.**

a. If several compound words have the same basal or modifying component, the element which they have in common need only be expressed once, but a hyphen must in the written word follow the modifying element, in the first-mentioned case, and precede the basal element, in the second case: *Würfel*- und *Schach*spiel the games of dice and chess; *Wort*ableitung und =*Zusammen*setzung formation of words by derivation and composition.

b. One of the components is often shortened by dropping a word, as the natural tendency is toward simpler forms: *Bahn*hof railroad depot, for *Eisenbahn*hof.

B. The basal component determines the part of speech to which the compound belongs except in such cases as in **249. II. 2**, where there are more than two components. Since every part of speech except the article can become the basal component, all parts of speech except the article can form compounds: *Mann*esmut courage of a man, *hilfs*bedürftig requiring help, *fünf*zehn fifteen, *dersel*'be the same, *berg*ab' down hill, &c. In inflected words the basal component stands last and assumes the inflectional endings of the compound and in case of substantives also the gender: *früh*stücken to breakfast, *ich* frühstücke; *das* Frühstück, *des* Frühstück. This rule, however, holds only in a broad general sense, the limitations being discussed in **249. II. 2.**

C. The accent usually rests upon the modifying element, as it is the special point to which the attention is called. There are, however, manifold exceptions, and the whole question of accent in compounds is treated at length under the head of Accent, **47. 3.**

*Different Kinds of Compounds.***249.** Composition is proper or improper.

Note. The common terms *proper* and *improper compounds* are retained upon the basis of usage. In fact, however, the latter class are as true compounds as the former, for they must have originated in the same manner, the naked stem in the original language having been employed in the sentence in much the same way as later the inflected forms which gave rise to improper compounds, as described in II, below.

I. Composition Proper.

A compound proper has two components, which do not stand in any self-evident syntactical relation to each other. It is formed by joining the stems of two words directly together without the aid of inflectional endings between them: Birnbaum (Birne + Baum) *pear tree*, Hausherr (Haus + Herr), ehefrau (Ehe + frau) *having an aversion to marriage*. The peculiarity of composition proper is that the ideas which lie in the two components are so thoroughly fused together that one idea results from their union. This idea, however, rests entirely upon the fusion of the two components, and may often immediately disappear if the compound is separated literally into two parts. Thus Abendmahl denotes *the Lord's Supper*, not literally *an evening meal*; Grobhmied a *smith who manufactures coarse (grob) iron articles*, not *a coarse smith*.

a. In an earlier period of the language the stem of a word was not always identical in form with its nom. sing. as to-day, but often ended in one of the vowels a, i, u. In compounds the first element always stood in its simple stem-form, the second element was inflected: (O.H.G.) N. taga-sterro or taga-stern *morning star*, G. taga-sterren or taga-sterne, &c. As a survival of this older usage are still found a number of words with the final stem vowel e (which is the usual N.H.G. weakened form of O.H.G. a, i, u): Hundehütte *dog-house*, Tagebuch *diary*, Pferdedieb *horse-thief*, &c. In a number of these cases the e is now felt as a pl. ending. In most cases, however, the former final stem-vowel has disappeared: Tagewache, tagetäglich, &c. This vowel instead of disappearing has become productive in case of verbal stems, which after the analogy of nouns now freely add e, especially if the stem ends in b, d, g, f: Sterbezimmer, Ladestock, Zeigefinger, Lesebuch, Haltestelle, &c.; many, however, without the e, as in case of nominal stems: Schreibfeder, Kaufleute, &c. In general the old stem-vowel e has not only disappeared in a large number of words, but this old formation of stem-composition is often replaced by improper composition, as described in II, especially in modern words: Tagespresse, &c. The same modifying component often shows all three formations, the forms differing in different compounds or even in the same compound: Tagesdieb or Tagdieb, Tagelohn or Taglohn, Tagewerk or Tagwerk, Tagereise, Tageslicht, Tagesordnung, &c. In case of adjectives the modifying component may have different forms with the same basal element: wortbrüchig, but vertragbrüchig; gehaltreich, but verkehrsreich, inhalt(s)reich; gottfürchtig (Luke ii. 25), now gottesfürchtig, &c.

b. In case of verbs whose stems end in en (now always contracted to n), as rechnen *to count, compute*, many people prefix the whole infin.

to the basal component, as the simple stem is never heard: *Rechen-lehrer arithmetical teacher*, *Zeichenbuch drawing-book* instead of *Rechenlehrer*, *Zeichenbuch*. All grammarians and the new dictionaries, however, condemn this natural and popular trend and favor the strictly grammatical form.

c. A number of words which have the distinctive form and features of proper compounds, and are therefore classed here, were originally syntactical fragments and hence have had a different origin; see II. 1. A, below.

II. Composition Improper.

A later formation than composition proper is improper composition. An improper compound is a mere syntactical fragment, a piece of a sentence the words of which stand in some syntactical relation to each other, and have come in course of time to be felt as a compound. The different components together usually form one idea, but differ from the components of proper compounds in that their syntactical relations to each other can be traced by the philologist. Sometimes, however, the parts of the compound are simply bound together by one accent, and the union of the syntactical elements has not resulted in a thought-unification, as in case of proper and most improper compounds: *ḡarai'* from *ḡa + ai*; &c.

In improper compounds the original syntactical relations of the different components are now sometimes not felt, sometimes the logical relation of the components is a peculiar one, and quite different from that suggested by their grammatical relation, sometimes the logical force of one of the elements becomes more important than the idea of its grammatical function, all of which gives rise to various classes of compounds:

1. *Compounds with Two Components.* In these compounds the logical importance of the modifying component requires it usually to be accented, even though its syntactical function may not call for accent.

The following groups occur:

A. In some compounds the syntactical relations are no longer vividly felt, nor do the components maintain always the literal meaning they have outside of the compound: *ḡung'gejell bachelor* = M.H.G. *junc geselle young fellow*, gen. *junges gesellen*. Thus this compound was originally a syntactical fragment consisting of a noun in the nom. and its modifying adjective, which in an earlier period was allowed to drop sometimes its nom. ending. Adjectives are not now permitted to drop here a case ending, and thus the original syntactical relation of the words became indistinct. This left the two words free to enter into a new, closer relation, and develop an idea not literally contained in the syntactical relation of the individual components. Also the accent distinguishes the compound to-day from the usual combination of adjective and substantive as found in actual use in the sentence, where, according to 50. A. 5, the accent usually rests upon the last member of the combination, i.e. upon the substantive. Originally the accent was upon the

adjective. Thus these compounds preserve the older order of things, while the usual syntactical group as found in actual use in the sentence has followed the tendency observable elsewhere to shift the accent upon the last member of the group.

a. The different compound elements of such compounds, and also those of proper compounds, have in a number of cases become so contracted and corrupted in the course of time that they are no longer clearly distinguished, and the words which they form are not always felt as compounds: *Glend misery*, O.H.G. *eli-lenti foreign land*; *Hoffart pride, arrogance*, from older *hochfart*, from *hoch high* and *fahren to live, ride*; *Jungfer maid, miss*, from *Jungfrau*; *Junfer young nobleman*, from M.H.G. *juncherre = junger Herr*, &c.

b. Some compounds which have thus arisen out of the juxtaposition of adjective and noun have not fused so thoroughly as the above examples. Thus we address a little child who is afraid of a goose pleasantly by the words *kleiner* (formerly also *klein*) *Ha'senfuß little coward*, or by the compound *Klein-Ha'senfuß*, which still retains the older inflectionless form of the adjective, but has modern grammatical accent according to 50. A. 5, as the syntactical relation of the components is vividly felt. Likewise many geographical names (47. 3. A. g) have the modern sentence accent, some with inflection of the adjective, others without such inflection: *Altstü'tliß, Neunteich'* (= *am neuen Teich'*), &c.

B. In some compounds the syntactical relation between the components is clearly that of a noun and its modifying genitive: (str. gen.) *Got'tesdienst divine service, public worship of God*, *Grüß'lingeregen spring rain*, *Wirt's'hauß inn, tavern*, *Her'zenslust desire of one's heart*, *Glau'bensfreiheit*; (wk. gen.) *Hir'tenstab shepherd's staff*, *Gra'senstand dignity and rank of a count*; (pl. gen.) *Göt'terlehre mythology, treatise on the ancient gods*; also many geographical names: *Rö'nigsberg*, &c.

Such substantives are formed by placing the singular or the plural ending of the strong or weak genitive form of the modifying component before the basal component. In declining such compounds the genitive form of the modifying component remains constant throughout the different cases, only the basal component assuming the inflection.

Note. The principal cause that led to the formation of such compounds was the fact that the genitive which preceded the governing noun lost its concrete force and took on abstract general meaning. The abstract genitive after the manner of an emphatic adjective gave a distinct shade of meaning to the following noun, and made natural and easy the retention of the original accent of such syntactical fragments, while the same combination of genitive and governing noun as found in actual use in the sentence usually follows the modern tendency described in 50. A. 7. d to shift the accent upon the last member of the combination. New genitive compounds follow the logical principle observed in the older compounds, and not the modern sentence accent, as the accent has become the distinguishing feature between a compound and a syntactical combination. Another circumstance has been of assistance in forcing the recognition of such words as compounds. M.H.G. usage often placed the article which belonged to a governing noun before the preceding dependent genitive: *der gotes segen*. As such old forms often remained after this M.H.G. usage gave way to the N.H.G. rule that the preceding modifying genitive retains its article, while the governing noun is without one, as in *des lieben Gottes Segen*, it became evident that in case of these old forms the preceding genitive and the following governing noun were no longer felt as separate words, but as one word, and that the article in accordance with the general rule for compounds followed

the gender and case of the last component. Thus this N.H.G. change of construction has forced the recognition of such compounds in the common orthography, and we must write *der reiche Gottesseggen*. In German the form of the article reveals to us at once whether the words are considered as compounded or as separate, but in English we have no such formal evidence, as the article is uninflected: *dieser Hirtenstab* *this* (pause) *shepherd's staff*, *dieses Hirten Stab* *this shepherd's* (pause) *staff* = *the staff of this shepherd*.

a. In a number of words the old weak genitive still stands in such compounds, although the same words have elsewhere long since become strong, or in case of feminines in the singular have lost inflection: *Greisenalter* (see 76. I. 3. *b*) old age, *Schelmestück* piece of roguery, *Herzogenbusch* (71. I. c. (2)), *Spionenriecher* (see p. 81, *General Note*) one who is always on the look-out for spies, *Epigrammendichter* (p. 81, *General Note*) epigrammatist, *Gelehrtenversammlung* (111. 4. *b*); *Sonnenschein* sunshine, *Freudentag* day of joy, &c. In a number of words the old feminine genitive of the strong declension, which was exactly like the nominative, has been retained: *Rachegott* god of vengeance, *Mußestunde* hour of leisure, &c. In an earlier period some of these strong feminines added *e* in the genitive singular, and the vowel was mutated; see 71. 2. *c*. This old genitive survives in a few compounds: *Gänsefeder*, *Bräutigam* (the first component being the genitive of *Braut* with an *i* corrupted from *e*, the second component an old noun, not now found elsewhere, the modern form of O.H.G. *gomo man*, related to Latin *homo*), &c.

b. The connecting of the two components by an *s* has become very popular, and has spread to a large number of words originally without it, often even to feminines, where Luther rarely has an *s*. Note especially the following cases where the *s* is now used:

aa. When a fem. modifying component ends in *at*, *ut*, *heit*, *schaft*, *t* (in compounds and derivatives only), *ion*, *ung*, *tät*: *Freundschaftsdienst*, *Hochzeitstag* (, but *Zeitpunkt*; see *dd*, below), *Krönungstag*, &c.

bb. Usually after the modifying components *Acht*, *Geschichte*, *Hilfe*, *Liebe*, and often *Miete*: *Achtkerflörung*, *Geschichtsforscher*, *Hilfstruppen*, *Liebedienst*, *Miet(s)leute*, *Miet(s)wagen*, &c. Also in *Kindtaufstuden* (see *dd*, below), *Frauensperson*, *Frauensleute*, *Seelengüte* or *Seelensgüte* (after the analogy of *Herzensgüte*). In the last three cases the *s* is added to the weak gen. Colloquially the *ns* often occurs instead of *n* in *Menschenkind* fellow, lad, 'my boy': *Jakob*: *Ist es nicht so, Ohm Reinhold?* *Ulrichs*: *So ist es, Menschenkind!* (*Halbe's Der Strom*, p. 8).

cc. In a few feminines in *=d* and *=nahme*: *Geduldsfaden*, *Aufnahmsbedingung*, &c.

dd. Often when the modifying compound is itself a compound: *Weihnachtsabend*, but *Nachtsalter*; *Handwerkzeug*, but *Werkzeug*, &c.

Note. The reason that the connecting *s* is thus often found in decomposites and not in simple compounds is that decomposites were little used in earlier periods, when proper compounds were so common. They came into use late, when improper composition had become the favorite formation, hence the *s*.

ee. The connecting *s* now often stands where Luther has proper composition: *Aber der Vnterheubtman gleubet dem Schiffherrn vnd dem Schiffman mehr | denn dem das Paulus saget* (*Acts xxvii. 11*).

ff. The connecting *ß* now so common in compounds does not always have the force of a genitive singular ending. It may indicate: (1) that the modifying component is to be considered as an appositive to the basal component: *Jägersmann, Rittersmann, &c.* (2) It may in fact contain a plural idea: *Diebesbande, Gastwirtsverein, Freundeskreis, Anwaltstag, Bischofsversammlung, Heringssfang, Offizierskorps* (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan?*, xiii), *das beste Offiziersmaterial* (ib.) the best material out of which officers can be made, *Schiffsverkehr, Zwillingsspaar, &c.* This *ß* is regarded by some as the Low German plural ending; see *Note*, below. Perhaps the plural *ß* in many foreign words has also exerted some influence. Whether this *ß* be a gen. ending or a pl. ending due to Low German or foreign influence, nouns with the plural ending *ε* do not readily enter compounds with their regular plural ending as do other nouns, but they usually take an *ß*, as in the examples given above, or very often have the form of composition proper, or in the case of certain nouns (see *a*, above) which were once weak assume the weak plural ending *en*: *Offizierskorps* (preferred to the form in *ß* by a number of grammarians), *Kopfzahl* number of persons present, &c.; *Spionennichter, &c.* The *ε* in the formations described in I. *a*, above, may in part be felt as a plural ending, but it is in fact an old stem-suffix. (3) It may contain the idea of a comparison: *engelsgut, finger(s)lang, lebensgroß, &c.* In a number of cases this *ß* has resulted from the analogy of similar noun formations where the *ß* represents a real genitive ending: *Engelsgüte, Fingerslänge, &c.* (4) Occasionally it is equivalent to a prep. phrase: *eine Aufschensneigung ihrer Lippen* (Jensen's *Schatzsucher*, p. 288) instead of the more common *eine Neigung ihrer Lippen zum Aufschen*.

Note. The *ß* in the cases in *aa, bb, cc, dd, ee, ff* (2) seems to have come from the Low German, where it is a favorite, being found in accordance with older usage in the genitive of feminines as well as masculines and neuters, both in compounds and in independent words, and often throughout the plural as the regular plural ending. Owing to the importance of North German writers in the present period this connecting *ß* has gradually since Luther's day been gaining ground in the literary language. The analogy of masculine and neuter words has of course facilitated the spread of this *ß* among feminines. Sometimes the same word has the form of proper and improper composition, in a few cases with differentiation of meaning: *Landmann* peasant, *Landemann* fellow countryman; *Wassernot* lack of water, *Wasserönet* inundation.

c. The connecting of the two components by an *en*, the weak genitive ending, though not so popular as that of *ß*, has spread to a number of words originally without it. Especially those feminines now ending in *ε* which were originally strong take this *en* in compounds after the analogy of weak feminines, which formerly ended regularly in *en* in the genitive sing.: *Gnadenast, Säulenknopf, Entenschnabel, &c.* Some words enter into compounds with their simple stem or the weak genitive ending with differentiated meaning: *Erdegeruch* *smell of fresh earth*, but in figurative sense *Erdegeschick* *lot of this earth or world, human fate, &c.*

Masculines do not usually take an *en* when they are not entitled to it, but weak masculines often take an *en*, especially in derivatives,

although corresponding strong nouns enter similar formations, not with the strong genitive ending *s*, but with their simple stem: *bubenhaft*, but *schülerhaft*; *Fürstentum*, but *Kaisertum*, &c.

C. In many compounds the modifying component stands in the relation of a modifying adverb: *hochbegabt* highly endowed, *weitverbreitet*, *auffstehen*, &c. Adverbial genitive: *herzensgroß* (gen. of specification; see 223. III. a; in M.H.G. the gen. is also written separate: *sō wart er aber dō sines muotes harte vrō* — Hartmann von Aue's *Gregorius*, 2902), *seelenfro* or *seelensfro* (after the analogy of *herzensgroß*), *herzensgut*, *seelengut* or *seelensgut* (after the analogy of *herzensgut*). To this group of compounds belongs the large class of verbs with a separable prefix (215. II. 1. B. a) or prepositional phrase (215. II. 1. B. d). These are not fixed compounds, as the prefix is separable in simple tenses in principal propositions. Nouns made from such verbs are, however, fixed compounds: *Ausgang*, *Instandsetzung*, &c. There is also in case of verbs a tendency toward the form of a true compound; see 215. II. 2. c.

D. The modifying component may be:

(1) The object (215. II. 1. B. c) of the verbal stem contained in the basal component, as in *stattfinden* to take place, *freudebringend*, *menschenbeglückend*, or in case of adjectives it may be the objective predicate (104. 2. A. c and 215. II. 1. B. b), as in *großziehen* to bring up, rear. Such compounds are in large part separable verbs, and hence are not fixed compounds. In case of verbal nouns the object is sometimes in the acc., sometimes in the gen.: *Maßhalten* or *Maßhaltung*; *Gehor'samsverweigerung*, *Friedensbrecher*, *Befehls'haber*, &c. Where the form is not decisive, as in *Kna'benerziehung*, *Schul'denmacher*, &c., the object may be regarded as an acc. or a gen. Composition proper is also common with verbal nouns: *Gesetz'gebung* (corresponding to *Gesetze geben*), *Buch'binder* (corresponding to *Bücher binden*), &c.

(2) The modifying component may be the object of an adjective in the gen. or dat. according as it governs the gen. or dat. in the sentence: *le'bensmüde* tired of life, *vor'wurfsvoll* reproachful; *milch'ähnlich* milklike, *gott'ergeben* resigned to the will of God, devout. Although the gen. form is always clearly marked here, the dat. form never takes a clear dat. ending except in case of weak nouns, and there it remains uncertain whether the number is sing. or pl.: *gott'ähnlich* (not *gott'ähnlich*), but *men'schenähnlich*.

E. The modifying element may be a predicate nom., although there is no ending here by which the form can be distinguished from composition proper: *die Menschwerdung* the incarnation, lit. the becoming a man, *das Soldatsein*, *das Flüssigwerden fester Körper*, &c.

2. *Loose Compounds*. A large group of words, mainly new formations, have not, as the above-mentioned compounds, a basal component and a modifying component, which stand in a clearly marked logical relation to each other, but form a loose compound in which the elements stand only in a grammatical relation to each other. Such a compound is in fact only the syntactical fragment of a sentence or indeed a whole sentence which has been written together as one word. The improper compounds described in 1, above, are also

syntactical fragments of a sentence, but they differ from loose compounds in that they have retained their former logical accent, as explained in 1. A and B. *Note*, while loose compounds follow the modern rules for sentence accent, which is now often controlled by merely mechanical principles. Thus *Jung'frau*, *Meer'esströmung* preserve the older accent upon the attributive adjective and genitive, although in sentence accent the following noun now usually receives the stress: *die junge Frau*, *des Meeres Strömung*. On the other hand, the loose compound *Langerwei'le* follows the mechanical principle of accenting the second member of the syntactical combination as in sentence accent. Nouns formed in former periods, when logical accent prevailed, have preserved their former accent: *Weiß'nächten* (M.H.G. *ze den wihen nahten* = *in den heiligen Nächten*), *Mit'tag* (= older *der mitte Tag*), &c. In new compounds formed from syntactical fragments the modern sentence accent is natural. Also in older formations there are traces of the struggle of the older logical principle with the modern mechanical accent: *Na'ch Mit'ta'ge* *sa'ßen wir* (Goethe's *Stirbt der Fuchs, so gilt der Balg*). There is, however, in general a tendency toward the estate of a true compound; see A, below.

The number of the elements in a loose compound is not limited to two.

In some cases the different elements of the compound are each inflected, in other cases the compound remains uninflected, as it is not felt as one word: *der Geheimerat'*, *des Geheimerats'*; *das Lebehoch'*, *des Lebehoch'*. Thus both accent and inflection show that these compounds are not yet in general felt as true compounds, there are, however, a number of them which are treated partly or wholly as such: *der Spring'insfeld*, *des Spring'insfeld(es)*, pl. *die Spring'insfelde*.

The following groups will illustrate this kind of compounds:

A. The compound consists of a noun and its modifying adjective, which is inflected as well as the noun: *der Hohepriester* high-priest, *ein Hohepriester*, *des Hohepriesters*, &c. Also many geographical names: *Neunteich'* (= *am neuen Teich'*), &c. Many of these compounds have retained the older sentence accent (249. II. 1. A and *b* thereunder), or have assumed it after the analogy of such: *Altensburg*, *Hoheinstein*, &c. Sometimes instead of inflection the nom. form becomes fixed, and is used throughout: in *der Langerwei'le* (instead of *Langerwei'le*, which is also common) *unseres Lagerlebens* (Sudermann's *Teja*, 3). The tendency in a number of cases is toward the form of a true compound: instead of *aus Langerwei'le* (or *Langerwei'le*) also *aus Lang'weile* (Schönherr's *Sommwendtag*, p. 38); instead of *der Geheimerat'*, also *der Geheim'rat*. For full treatment of this construction see 94. 6.

a. A number of adverbial compounds consist of a noun in the adverbial gen., modified by an adj. in the gen.: *je'denfalls* *at all events*. In a number of pl. compounds, where all feeling for the original construction has been lost, the substantive element of the compound has dropped its gen. pl. ending, and after the analogy of the sing. compounds taken on the ending *s*, although the modifying

adjective still remains as originally in the gen. pl.: aller Ding'e (seventeenth century), allerding's' (present form) *to be sure, certainly*, allerorts' *everywhere*, &c. In a number of such compounds the substantive element adds s even to fem. nouns, following here the analogy of masculines: sei'nerseits *upon his part*, müt'terlicherseits *upon the mother's side*. For a similar formation see unterwegs', 223. I. 10. a.

B. The article forms a compound with a following adj.: der'jenige, desgleich'en.

C. A noun forms a compound with its modifying gen.: Mutter-got'tes, zeitle'ten's. For accent see 47. 3. A. e. (3). Also many geographical names (47. 3. A. g.): Rippold'sau', &c. The words of this group resemble in form the proper compounds described in 1. B above, but differ from them in having modern sentence accent (see 50. A. 7. d and 255. II. 1).

D. The name of a material or something measurable forms a compound with some word denoting a measure, quantity, or weight: Viertelfün'de *quarter of an hour*. See 126. 2. a. Note.

E. A prep. forms a compound with its dependent noun: absei'ten. Du hattest doch hier 'n sich's, warmes Zuhau'se (Hauptmann's *Friedensfest*, 1). Also verbal derivatives are formed from such prepositional phrases: übernach'ten, überwin'tern.

a. In some of these words, all feeling for the nature of compounds having disappeared, inflectional endings are added to the oblique case ending: verhan'den (dat. pl.) *on hand*, die verhan'denen Vorräte the provisions on hand.

F. In some compounds the syntactical relation between the parts is that of apposition, co-ordination, or addition: Gottmen'sch' God incarnate, Fürstbi'sch'of a bishop who has also the dignity of a prince, Prinzregent' a prince temporarily filling the place of the ruler, Hanswurst' jack-pudding, Hansnarr' tom-fool; Österreich-Ungarn Austro-Hungary, die schwarzro'te Fahne Württembergs the flag of Württemberg consisting of black and red, das schwarzrotgoldene Banner Deutschlands 1848 the banner of Germany in 1848 consisting of black, red, and gold; Nordost', Südwest'; einundzwan'zig; himbam-bum! piffpaff!

a. Not all words indicating a co-ordination of parts are written together as one word. In a number of cases a pair of words connected by und or oder form a single idea, when the two words are synonyms, and thus represent the same thing from two different standpoints, or are opposites or complements, and thus show the whole range of the idea from the two extremes (see 94. 5): sein ganzes Hab (die Habe) und Gut *all he owns or all his property*, der Verlust ihres Hab und Gutes, sein Tun und Lassen *his actions*, in die Kreuz und Quere fragen to cross-examine, in die Kreuz und Quere schwagen to talk, chat upon this subject and that, and the other similar examples in 94. 5; auf ein oder die andere Weise *in one way or another*, schwarz und weiße Fahnen *flags consisting of black and white*, and the other similar examples in 111. 7. b. In the preceding examples the inflection of only the second of the two words, or the use of the article which

belongs to the second word as the article for the combination, clearly stamps them as compounds, though not written as such. In many other cases words are in fact compounds, but the absence of an inflectional ending in the second part does not show it so clearly: *weit und breit*, in *Sack und Asche* *trauern* to repent in sackcloth and ashes, *durch dick und dünn*, *über Land und Meer*.

G. In some compounds the syntactical relation between the parts is that of verb and object: *daß immer erneute Sichflüchten zu dem Herrn* (Brückner), *Sichüberheben*, *Sichvergesßen*. In accordance with older usage the reflexive object is still omitted here in many compounds, especially in connection with *selbst*: *sich befinden*, but *Befinden*; *sich hingeben*, but *Hingabe* or *Hingeben*; *sich selbst beherrschen*, but *Selbstbeherrschung*, &c. A dative object is sometimes found: *Sichselbstüberlassen* sein, &c. A dative of reference is also found: *Daß Menschenmögliche hab' ich getan* (Halbe's *Der Strom*, p. 109).

There may be a double object, an acc. object and an objective predicate: *Sobald ich am Menschen dieses unnötige Wesen und Sichmanfigmachen bemerke, so lasse ich ihn laufen* (G. Keller an T. Storm, 5. Juni 1882).

The verbal stem may be modified by both an object and a prepositional phrase: *Dein seliger Vater würde darin kaum eine Ursache zum Sichingrabumdrehen finden* (Baumbach's *Der Schwiegersohn*, v).

H. A whole sentence may become a compound, especially in imperative sentences: *Lebehoch', Gottlob', Vergiß' meinnicht*.

I. Some compounds consist of two components, of which the first is a loose compound and has the principal accent, which is placed according to the rules for sentence accent: *Gutnachtgruß*, *Dreißigstagesfest*, *Altreiher Sommer*, *Dummerjungenstreich*, in *dieser Droschke-erster-Klasse-Gesellschaft* (Raabe's *Im alten Eisen*, XVII), *die Kaiser Wilhelm II. Realschule* (read *Wilhelm der Zweite*). The first element is sometimes inflected, and sometimes remains uninflected; see 94. 6.

3. A large number of words which by their form belong to one or other of the above-described categories form with respect to accent and meaning a distinct group, namely compounds the first element of which does not contain an essential modification of the basal compound, but only an intensification of the idea or a concrete or specific illustration of it, and hence does not take the principal accent: *hundseltend* very miserable, *Riesenfleiß* great diligence, *stodfinster* very dark, *schwarz* jet-black, *kreuzfidel* as merry as a cricket, &c. For particulars as to accent see 47. 3. A. b. aa, bb c, d

PART IV

SYNTAX.

ESSENTIAL ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE.

250. A thought expressed in words is a sentence. It is usually considered that there are two essential elements in every sentence—the subject and the predicate : Karl singt.

a. Some grammarians look at the subject as a modifier of the verb, and hence consider the verb as the only essential element of a sentence, since it alone, as in imperative sentences and other instances mentioned below, can express a thought completely, containing within its own personal endings the subject : Gile! Hurry! In earlier periods of the language the subject was not so necessary, but it must now be considered as an essential element in a normal sentence.

The primitive sentence must have been of far less formal nature than it is to-day, and we still have in interjections a form of expression that cannot be resolved into a subject and predicate : Ach! Ach! &c. See 241.

251. *The Subject.*

I. The Case and Forms of the Subject.

I. A. The subject of a finite verb is in the nominative : Der Schüler lernt.

a. The subject can sometimes in imitation of a French construction be in the gen. or in the dat. after von ; see 255. II. 1. H. c.

b. In a number of instances a noun in an oblique case after a prep. is considered the subject of the sentence, since the real origin of the construction is no longer felt : Gegen hundert Mann sind gefallen About a hundred men fell. An die tausend Menschen waren versammelt. In these sentences the prep. an and gegen are felt now as adverbs with the force of ungefähr and etwa.

B. The form of the subject may be that of :

a. A noun : Die Sonne leuchtet.

b. A pronoun : Ich schreibe.

c. An adjective or participle used substantively : Der Fröhliche lacht. Zu grob ist unanständig und die Rechnung wird das ausweisen (Raabe's *Der Dräumling*, XXVI). Der Trauernde weint. Der Besiegte trauert. Lustig gelebt heißt selig gestorben (Beyerlein's *Dämon Othello*, 1, 4).

d. An infin. with or without zu : Andern zu dienen macht ihr Freude. Mäßig leben macht stark.

e. Any other part of speech used substantively : Auf ist eine Präposition.

f. A whole clause : Wer nicht hören will, muß fühlen.

2. A. Sometimes there are two subjects in a sentence—the *logical* and *grammatical* subject: *Es* (grammatical, or provisional subject) war einmal ein König (logical subject). The grammatical subject is usually the uninflected *es*, which as a provisional subject serves only as a formal introduction to the sentence, and points forward to the logical subject in the nom., which follows the verb: *Es sind viele hier gewesen* *There have been many here*. The logical subject is here the real subject, as it regulates the number of the verb. In inverted order the *es* drops out: *Hier sind viele gewesen*. It is also dropped when the real subject stands at the head of the sentence: *Viele sind hier gewesen*. For the use of the grammatical subject, see II. B, below.

It should be noted that this use of *es* as grammatical subject corresponds in part to the use of *there* in English, but the construction has in German a wider field of usefulness: *Es weiß ja niemand, wann er zuletzt zur Beichte gegangen ist* *Indeed, nobody knows when he confessed* (to the priest) *last*. In English, on the other hand, the expletive *there* is in one particular case more used than *es* is in German, namely, it can be used even when some other word introduces the sentence, while in German *es* is then uniformly dropped: *A few years ago there lived in this house a lonely old man* *Vor einigen Jahren wohnte in diesem Hause ein einsamer, alter Mann*. In both English and German it is not customary for the expletive to introduce the sentence if the logical subject is a personal pronoun: not *Es kann ich*, but *Ich kann* *I can*.

a. In poetical style a grammatical subject agreeing in gender, number, and case with a following logical subject is found: *Und trostet' er ab die Träne, der Jüngling edeln Gefühles*.

b. Somewhat different from the above is the common case where the logical subject is placed at the head of the sentence, and then for emphasis is immediately or after an interval of several words again referred to by a personal pronoun or demon. which agrees with it: *Die Freiheit, sie ist kein leerer Wahn. Der arme Mensch! Nun ist er ganz verlassen. Mein Schatz da, der ist vorgestern verkauft worden*.

B. Similar to the *grammatical*, or *provisional subject* in A is the *anticipative subject* *es*, which points forward to a following infin. or substantive clause that explains more fully the indefinite *es*: *Es macht mir großes Vergnügen, Sie hier zu sehen*. *Es ist nicht gut, daß der Mensch allein sei*. This *es* differs from the grammatical subject *es* in having more independent force, and hence is only rarely dropped, even when some other word stands at the head of the sentence: *Heute macht es mir großes Vergnügen, Sie hier zu sehen*. It drops out, however, when the real subject stands at the head of the sentence: *Sie hier zu sehen macht mir großes Vergnügen*.

3. *The indefinite es*. Similar to the *es* in 2. A and B is the indefinite *es*, which does not point to a definite person or thing, but to something which becomes known from the connection. Two distinct groups may be distinguished:

A. *Es in expressions of identity*. *Es* is much used in connection with the verb *sein* and a predicate noun or pronoun to indicate that

the subject introduced indefinitely receives its definite meaning by means of the predicate noun or pronoun. Different aspects of this construction are treated in II. B. a. aa, below, and in 141. 9. a and 151. 3. B. c. Attention is here called to the peculiar word-order employed here when the predicate is a personal pronoun. In this case the predicate usually comes first in the sentence, and so influences the verb that the verb agrees with it instead of agreeing with the subject: *ich bin es* it is I, *du bist es* it is you, *er ist es* it is he, *wir sind es* it is we, *ihr seid es* it is you, *sie sind es* it is they; or in question order: *bist du es?* is it you?, *ist er es?* is it he? &c. Grammarians usually make this rule general, but in the third person the normal order is sometimes used as in English: *Herr, ich höre Pferde im Galopp!* *Zwei!* *Es sind sie gewiß* (Goethe's *Götz*, 1, 2). Quite commonly so in Swiss dialect and colloquial language: *Nein, es ist ihn* (252. 2. C. a) *nicht* (J. Gotthelf's *Geld und Geist*, 366). *Hatte gedacht: Ist's ihn wohl?* (ib., 155).

The form *ich bin es* it is I should be distinguished from the *ich bin es* (129. 2. C. (4)) *I am*, which is given in answer to such a question as *bist du treu?* *are you faithful?* While the English distinguishes these cases sharply by a difference in form, the German cannot so do, except often, as in these examples, by the accent, emphasizing in case of the expression of identity the predicate and in the latter case the verb.

B. *As indefinite subject of impersonal verbs.* This construction is treated at considerable length in 219.

II. Omission or Expression of the Subject.

In general every sentence must have a subject expressed, but usage admits of certain irregularities, which are here treated briefly:

A. The *logical subject* is omitted:

a. As a rule in imperative sentences in the familiar form (177. I. A. a): *Fliehe!* *Fliehet!*

b. In the first person in a few set expressions: *Danke* I thank you. *Bitte* I beg of you, please. *Bedaure sehr*, kann nicht dienen I regret very much that I cannot serve you. Besides these and a number of other set expressions the subject is frequently omitted in business, and crisp epistolary style in general, and also often in poetry and familiar language: *Ihr Schreiben vom 16. d. M. (dieses Monats) habe erhalten.* *Habe nun ach, Philosophie, | Juristerei und Medizin, | und leider auch Theologie | durchaus studiert, mit heißem Bemühn!* (Goethe).

c. Often in the 2nd person in poetry and familiar language, and less frequently in the 3rd person: *Füllest* (speaking of the moon) *wieder Busch und Tal | still mit Nebelglanz, | lösest* (dost free from oppressive care) *endlich auch einmal | meine Seele ganz* (Goethe). *Warum hast denn bis jetzt kein Feuer angemacht?* (Auerbach). [*Sie you*, 2nd sing.] *Sehen ja frisch und blühend aus wie die Gesundheit selbst!* *Es* is especially dropped in familiar conversation: *Mag sein* *It may be.* *Kann nicht erlaubt werden* *It can't be allowed.* *Wird schon kommen* *It will surely come.*

d. As in English, a pronominal subject, predicate, or object is

often omitted in clauses of manner and degree introduced by *wie* *as*, *als* *as*, *than*. The subject is omitted especially in case of impersonal verbs or an indefinite reference: Er hat schon mehr getrunken, als ihm bekommen dürfte. Ihm, ihm, ich habe, bei Gott, müßtere Tanten in meinem Dasein gesehen, als da eben auf dem Balkon stand (Raabe's *Eulenspiegel*, chap. viii). Omission of predicate: Ich möchte dich nicht anders, als du bist. Omission of object: Ich traute Ihnen eine solche Niederträchtigkeit nicht zu, wie Sie bezangen haben.

In German, however, subordinate clauses often have an expressed subject, predicate, or object where the English does not admit of it: Sie trat an den Tisch und, ihre Brieftasche öffnend, legte sie eine Banknote unter den brennenden (illuminated Christmas) Baum, größer als sie noch je in dieser armen Hütte gesehen worden. Die Gräfin bekümmerte sich mehr um ihre Kinder, als es in Wien der Fall war. Wir trinken eine Flasche besseren Weines, als man ihn uns im Kurhause vorsetzen würde. When the reference is to a preceding predicate adjective, or predicate noun, or the thought contained in the preceding proposition, the pronominal predicate or object here is *es* or *dies*: Du bist auch bescheidener als ich es bin. Ihre Überraschung war groß, aber nicht so freudig, wie er dies erwartet hatte. After the word *such* English adjectival clauses introduced by *as* regularly suppress a pronominal object, while the German regularly insert it: Aus dem Krug floß kein Dünnbier, sondern ein Wein, wie der weitgereiste Schuster noch keinen getrunken hatte Out of the jug came no small beer, but a wine such as even the shoemaker, who had travelled so much, had never drunk. Instead of *es* or *dieses* the numeral *eins* is sometimes used here; see 153. 3. D. (1).

e. If several verbs have the same subject, it may usually be expressed only once, but the subject *must* be expressed in each proposition where some modifier of the verb (such as an adverbial element or an object) or a predicate noun or adjective stands before the verb: Er kam zu mir, ging aber sogleich weg, but aber sogleich ging er weg. The word-order need not necessarily be the same in the different propositions: Nach wie vor besuchte er wöchentlich mehrmals das kanzleirätliche Haus und hielt den Damen Vorträge über pompejanische Ausgrabungen im Besonderen und über Altertum im Allgemeinen (Baumbach's *Der Schwiegersohn*, v). In this sentence an adverbial element is in fact understood before the second proposition, as the adverbial modifier of the preceding proposition belongs also to the following one. This point is usually not vividly felt, so that inversion does not follow. Sometimes, however, we find the inverted order, as the presence of the preceding adverbial element, object, or predicate noun or adjective is felt: Schön war sie (die Stadt Kiel) niemals, ist sie auch nicht geworden und wird sie nie werden (Jensen); or also Schön war sie niemals, ist es auch nicht geworden und wird es nie werden.

B. *Omission or expression of provisional (see I. 2. A) and anticipative (I. 2. B) subjects.* The general rules for the omission of these subjects have already been given in the articles I. 2. A. and B. Moreover, the retention or omission of the provisional and anticipative subjects are questions of emphasis or style which deserve careful attention.

a. The *es* is retained in the following cases :

aa. To make emphatic a predicate noun or pronoun. In this case the predicate is placed at the head of the sentence in accordance with the general law for sentence accent, and is then followed in the first place by the main verb, in the second place by the anticipative subject *es*, and in the third place by the real subject, which assumes the form of a relative clause introduced by *der* or *welcher* : *Deutsche waren es, die das Pulver, die Buchdruckerei erfunden haben. Ich bin es, der es getan hat. Sie waren es, der anfang. Du bist's, dem Ruhm und Ehre gebührt.* Notice that in these sentences the verb does not agree with the grammatical subject *es* or with the real subject, but with the predicate, being attracted into its person and number. This emphatic form also has the following word-order : *Es ist dein Bruder, den du damit fränkst.* This form with normal word-order cannot be used if the predicate is a personal pronoun ; see I. 3. A, above.

bb. It is also used when it is desired for emphasis or some other reason to bring the verb forward from its usual position. As the verb cannot stand first in the sentence without giving it the impression of a question or of a conditional clause, it is necessary in simple tenses of a principal declarative proposition to introduce the sentence by *es*, if it is desired to bring the verb forward for emphasis : *Es irrt der Mensch so lang er strebt* Man errs as long as his aspirations last.

This emphatic word-order is not used if the subject is a personal pronoun. In this case the predicate verb may take the form of an infinitive depending upon *tun* : *Loben tat sie nicht viel, sie hielt's vom Überfluß* She rarely *praised* anybody, as she thought it superfluous. This construction is also common when the subject is a noun, especially in colloquial and popular language.

There is no need of the construction with *es* in compound tenses where the emphasis is to be placed upon the participle or infinitive, as the participle and infinitive which contain the important part of the predicate can be placed at the head of the sentence : *Genommen ist die Freiheit, nicht gegeben. Laß nur stehen ! Eingießen wird sich jeder selbst.* Likewise with modal auxiliaries : *Aber essen kannst du doch zu uns kommen* (Maria Janitschek's *Einer Mutter Sieg*, XVIII). If, however, the emphasis is to be placed upon the auxiliary, the auxiliary itself may introduce the sentence, and the participle and infinitive be omitted ; see the example from Fontane and the first one from M. Dreyer in *b*, below.

cc. The construction with *es* must be used if it is desired to emphasize especially the subject, for this can only be made prominent by taking it away from its usual place before the verb and placing it after the verb. In this case *es* becomes a provisional subject : *Es rannten ganze Regimenter.* As this construction is used to emphasize either the verb or the subject, the accent and context sometimes alone make clear which in each particular case is to be made prominent. It is the subject that is to be emphasized when it is found removed from the verb standing near the end of the proposition : *Es irren in Fällen von so mißlicher Natur selbst weisere Männer.*

Es haben in Fällen von so mißlicher Natur selbst weisere Männer geirrt. Es weiß ja **niemand**, wann er zuletzt zur Reichte gegangen ist. — Die „Neuen“ freilich, ja, die wechselten ihre Schiffe, will sagen die Dampfer, mit derselben Gleichgültigkeit, wie sie einen anderen Rock anzogen. Warum denn auch nicht?! Es band sie ja **nichts** an das eiserne Ungetüm. Es war ihnen doch nur die Arbeitsstätte, wo sie nach dem neuen Ausdruck „Arbeitnehmer“ waren (H. Pichler-Felsing's *Auf Abbruch verkauft*).

b. In popular language and in poetry the *es*, following older usage still common in early N.H.G., is often omitted, so that the verb introduces the sentence: Sah ein Knab ein Röslein stehn (Goethe's *Heidenröslein*).

Originally there was more freedom in the word-order than now, so that even a verb could introduce a declarative sentence, if it was to be emphasized, lay nearer in thought, or if it came to the front by the removal of the subject to the end of the sentence for the sake of emphasis, as described in *cc* above. Later, when it became the rule for some other word than a verb to stand at the beginning of a declarative sentence, the expletive *es* was often placed at the head of the sentence and immediately after it the verb, so that the formal grammatical rule was observed, and at the same time, as indicated in *bb*, *cc*, prominence given to the verb or the subject. Thus by a simple expedient the old historic word-order can still be used. The common people and poets do not comply with the formal rules of grammar, but often cling to older historic forms, and thus use here the old freedom of putting a verb at the head of the sentence. Even in the literary language the verb may for emphasis be placed at the head of the sentence if the subject is a pronoun, for the expletive *es* cannot be freely used here, and with personal pronouns cannot be used at all: „Und ich wette, Sie haben wieder einen Gierfuchsen gebäcken.“ „Hab' ich auch“ (Fontane). Der Landrat: Ich hab' euch nämlich lieb, Herrschaften! Markuse: Wissen wir! (Sudermann's *Der Sturmgeselle Sokrates*, 4, 13). Trude: Und du — zeigst sie jetzt an? Förster: Muß ich (M. Dreyer's *Winterschlaf*, 1). Trude: Dängst du schon wieder davon an! Tante: Ja, tu' ich (ib.). Eva: Magst du nicht ein Stückchen Kuchen, Kurt? Kurt: Danke . . . veracht' ich! (delle Grazie's *Sphinx*). Kurt (unter erneuten Küssen): Nun? Eva: Ich rufe! Kurt: Umso besser! Wissen's alle (ib.). Müssen die aber reich sein! (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XLIII). In colloquial language this construction is not restricted to a pronominal subject. For examples see 287. B. (7). The older freedom is also still found in the literary language within the body of the sentence after the conjunction *und*: Wir wollen fort, und soll die Hasenjagd ansetzen (Goethe's *Götz*, 3, 9). Aus freien Stücken ist er mitgegangen und läuft er vielleicht ihn voraus, der Abscheuliche (Raabe's *Pechlin*, chap. xi). Often in colloquial language and dialect: Neue Kasten! Und drücken (S.G. for drücken) uns die alten schon zentnerschwer (for zentnerschwerer)! (Schönherr's *Sonnwendtag*, p. 91). For other examples see 233. A. d.

On the other hand, the construction with the expletive *es* can be freely used with indefinite pronominal subjects; see *a. cc*, last two examples.

c. The provisional subject *es* must not be confounded with the *es* described in 141. 9. a, which is used in expressions of identity. In the former construction the noun following the verb is the real subject, while in the latter construction it is the predicate. *Es war ein König There was (once upon a time) a king*, or if it is the latter construction *It was a king*. The difference between the two constructions becomes apparent in the inverted order, as the provisional subject *es* there according to rule (see I. 2. A, above) drops out, while the *es* in the expression of identity remains: *Einmal war ein König in großer Not There was once a king in great need*, but *Ein König war es It was a king*.

C. The *impersonal subject es* is sometimes omitted; see 219. 4. B. a (and *Note* thereunder); 219. 5. A. and B. a.

The Predicate.

The Forms and Case of the Predicate.

252. 1. The predicate can be :

a. A finite verb of complete predication : *Reichtum vergeht*.

Note 1. The verb often becomes quite an unimportant element in a sentence, and by reason of the overpowering importance of some other part of the predicate loses a part or all of its original force and significance, or may be entirely or in part omitted. This is especially true in colloquial language in the following cases : (1) With nouns or adverbs which express a goal, destination, direction, the idea of the destination becomes so prominent that the idea of the *manner* of reaching it, which is contained in the verb, remains in the background and receives little attention. Thus we say: *Ich gehe morgen nach Berlin I am going to Berlin to-morrow*, although in fact we intend to go on the cars and not on foot, as would be naturally suggested by the real meaning of the verb *gehen*. We thus use *gehen* with any manner of locomotion, as we do not stop to think of its real meaning, but are thinking rather of the destination. (2) In compound tenses we may retain only the auxiliary and omit entirely the verb of motion, where there is a goal or destination mentioned: *Er ist nach Haus [gegangen]*. *Ich wollte nach Berlin [gehen]*. *Sie sind fort [gegangen]*. The auxiliary here performs the verbal *function*, and the adverb or prep. phrase contains the verbal *meaning*. Also in other cases the auxiliary is alone used when the omission can easily be supplied from the context: *Du wirst Papa unterrichten, nicht wahr? Natürlich werde ich [ihn unterrichten]*. (3) The verb often drops out even when there is no auxiliary to perform the verbal function, as the really important part of the predicate is contained in some modifier of the verb, and the verb itself can easily be supplied: *Das Fenster auf und die Frühjahrsluft (he)rein! Schönen Dank (sage ich)! I thank you! Guten Tag! Wohin (gehen Sie) des Weges? Where are you going to? (To the ticket agent at the railway station) Zwei dritter Berlin! Two second class tickets for Berlin!* (4) The auxiliary often drops out where it can easily be supplied: *(Hast du) Ausgeschlafen? Have you had your sleep out?* See also 190. 1. A. b and B. c.

Note 2. A marked difference from the English is the frequency of the usage which prefers to clothe the chief idea of the predicate in the form of a noun rather than in that of a verb: *Es wird in Überlegung gezogen (instead of überlegt) It is being considered. Das Stück wird bald zur Aufführung gebracht, or gelangt bald zur Aufführung (instead of wird bald aufgeführt) The piece will soon be played.* This idiom is also found in English, as for instance we say, "The matter is *under consideration*" (instead of *being considered*), but in German it is a much greater favorite, and is used in many cases which cannot be imitated in English.

b. A verb of incomplete predication in connection with a predicate complement, which with the assistance of the verb qualifies the subject.

Note. The verb, here usually called copula, is of so little importance that it very often in colloquial language and the terse crisp style of proverbs drops out entirely: *Frische Fische (sind), gute Fische. Ende gut, alles gut.*

It is not always necessary, as in the above, to supply a verb where there is none in the sentence. In colloquial language the predication is often an immediate reflection of personal feeling which suddenly gives vent to what is upon the mind without the formalities of grammatical rules: *Warte das! That's a bad set! Ein wackerer Mann, dein Vater! Your father's a brave fellow!* The preceding examples illustrate a common style of exclamatory sentences, where the predicate, the principal thing upon the mind, springs forth first, followed by the subject. In such informal sentences the predicate adj. may even assume the form of an attributive adj.: *Der gute Gregor!* These are the words uttered by the pastor in Halbe's *Jugend* as he looks after the receding chaplain. Here the noun is the real subject, and the attributive adj. the real predicate.

2. The predicate complement may be:

A. A noun:

a. In the nominative after intrans. verbs of incomplete predication (sein to be, werden to become, bleiben to remain, heißen to be called, named, dünken to seem, scheinen to seem, erscheinen to appear), or after the passive forms of the transitives (see 262. III. 2. A. a) which take a predicate accusative in the active: *Sokrates war der Sohn eines Bildhauers. Ich wurde von ihm ein Feigling gescholten.*

Note. After such verbs as lassen to let, heißen to bid, command, lehren to teach, sehen, &c., the predicate complement of the dependent intrans. of incomplete predication is often in the acc. attracted into this case by the preceding acc., which is the object of the principal verb: *Laß mich deinen Freund sein* (Wildenbruch's *König Heinrich*, 4, 5). *Er hieß ihn einen Tyrannen werden* (D. Sanders). In earlier periods of the language the acc. here was more common than the nom., and this is, perhaps, still the case, except after lehren, but at present the more natural nom. seems to be gaining upon the acc.: *Lassen Sie den Grafen dieser Gesandte sein* (Lessing). *Laß den wüsten Kerl, den Grobisch meinetwegen ihr Komplize sein* — deshalb bleibt sie doch immer die Schuldige (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, 3, 2). *Mich laß ein wilder Jäger durch den Nebel fahren* (Traeger). *Lassen Sie mich in Ihrem Tempel weilen als ein frommer Vater, als ein ergebener Verehrer (Ring). Lehre du ihn ein Mensch sein* (Meinhardt). If, however, the predicate complement has no modifiers, it is usually in the nom.: *Laß mich Herr sein.* When the object and the unmodified predicate are the same word, the latter usually stands in the acc., but the nom. also occurs in accordance with the general rule: *Laß den Narren Narren sein. Laß dir den Menschen Mensch sein* (Grillparzer's *Ein treuer Diener*, 5).

b. The predicate noun is in certain cases introduced by als or the prepositions für (w. acc.) and zu (w. dat.):

(1) The predicate nom. after erscheinen to appear, and the passive forms of ansehen to look at, begrüßen to greet, betrachten to consider, behandeln to treat, and all others (for list see 262. III. 2. A. b) which in the active take a predicate acc. introduced by als, also predicate appositives after intransitives of complete predication, are introduced by als, which here denotes *identity, oneness with*: *Dies erschien uns als der einzige Ausweg. Er wird als ein Augenichts betrachtet. Er wird als tapferer Held gepriesen. Kommst du zu uns als unser Feind oder unser Retter?*

In case of predicate appositives the als is frequently omitted in poetry: *Ein Feind kommst du zurück dem Orden* (Schiller). This is a survival of early N.H.G., which did not yet require here the als. In certain set expressions this older construction is also still pre-

served in prose, and has even become productive, so that new expressions are formed after the analogy of the old ones: *Vote* (see also 257. 2. A) *laufen* to go on an errand, *Gevatter stehen* to stand godfather, *bei einem Kinde Pate stehen* to become sponsor for a child at baptism, *Braut stehen* to stand as a bride before the altar, be married, *Modell sitzen* or *stehen* to serve as an artist's model: *Nein, es ist ein Kunstwerk, zu dem Sie einfach Modell gesessen haben!* (Fulda's *Die wilde Jagd*, 3, 10). In case of *Wache stehen* to *stand guard* this construction has replaced an older prepositional one: *ih sihe den videlære an der schiltwache stân* (*Nibelungenlied*, 1778, 4). Similarly *Wache sitzen*: *Iezo sitze ich hier Wache* (Raabe's *Meister Autor*, chap. xxiii). Some grammarians feel some of these articleless nouns as cognate accusatives (see 257. 2. A), and in fact a clear acc. form is sometimes found: "*Sie waren verreist?*" "*Ja, bei einer Nichte in Oberschlesien Paten gestanden*" (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, IX). On the other hand the nom. sing. is sometimes used with reference to more than one, which shows that the noun has lost its identity and has entered into relations with the verb to form a compound: *Pate stehen sollten Gottfried von Geyer und Major von Schirmmacher* (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, II). The same result is also sometimes indicated here by the use of the masc. form with reference to a female: *Denn der Alte hatte ein Enkeltdöchterchen bei sich, zu dem sie* (i. e. Agnes) *Pate gestanden* (Storm's *In St. Jürgen*).

(2) After the passive forms of a few verbs the predicate is introduced by *für* (with acc.) which does not positively affirm complete and absolute identity as does *als*, but only equality, and hence denotes that something is considered or represented as able or worthy to pass for the thing expressed by the predicate: *Er wird für einen reichen Mann gehalten* He is regarded as a rich man. Sometimes after *gelten* and certain passive forms *für* and *als* are both used with the same verb, either with the same or with a different shade of meaning: *Er gilt für einen* or *als ein Dichter* He passes for a poet. *Er wird als ein Narr* or *für einen Narren angesehen* He is looked upon as a fool. Instead of the acc. here after *für* we often find the gen. where the substantive is in fact a substitute for a predicate adjective (see 253. IV): *Er gilt ärztlich nicht für ersten Ranges* (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. xxiii). Though *für* is pretty well established after a few verbs, especially *halten* and *erklären*, *als* is in general the favorite. The passive and the intransitive active constructions with *für* and *als* are not so common as the transitive active one, and hence the use of *für* and *als* is more fully illustrated in the active construction described in 262. III. 2. A. c and *Note*.

Note. The two particles *für* and *als* are closely united in meaning, and hence sometimes it is forgotten that they differ in function, *als* being a conjunction and *für* a prep. which governs the acc., and accordingly a nom. is sometimes loosely allowed to follow *für* after the analogy of *als*: *Hier wird allgemein der Standpunkt für ein forrefter* (instead of *einen forreften*) *gehalten* (National-Zeitung, 46, 15).

(3) The predicate after *werden* is introduced by *zu* with the dat. if it is desired to show an actual or desired transformation or

development into the state indicated by the predicate: Diese schönen Hoffnungen wurden zu Wasser These fine hopes ended in smoke. Er wurde zum Bettler He became a beggar. Der Knabe wird zum Mann. If it is the finished state or condition reached or to be reached rather than the process of development that is before the mind the zu drops out: Sie wurde Schauspielerin. Er wird Kaufmann He is going to be a merchant.

c. After the verb *sein to be*, more rarely after *werden to become*, *scheinen to seem*, a predicate genitive is used to express several ideas also found in the attributive gen., namely, *quality, origin*, and in choice language *possession*, or the first two of these ideas, and also that of *material*, and sometimes the *partitive* idea may be expressed by a prep. phrase (see 253. IV): Ich bin ganz Ihrer Meinung I am quite of your opinion. Darüber kann man verschiedener Ansicht sein. Wir sind gleichen Alters We are of the same age. Seien Sie guter Dinge Be of good cheer. Er ist andern Sinnes geworden He has changed his mind. Also du bist wirklich des Glaubens, Michael hätte keinen fehnlicheren Wunsch gehabt, als seinen Sitz im Reichstag loszuwerden? (Sudermann's *Es lebe das Leben*, p. 40). So konnte Mommsen glauben, daß ich mit Unrecht gegen ihn ankämpfe, während ich natürlich der Überzeugung war und noch heute bin, daß ich zum Widerspruch verpflichtet war (Otto Seeck's *Zur Charakteristik Mommsens*, Deutsche Rundschau, Jan. 1904). Kaufaler Natur ist auch *for*, wie es jetzt gebraucht wird in *to leave (start, sail) for, to long (wish) for, eager for*, indem ein zu erreichendes Ziel, ein Zweck als der Grund einer Tätigkeit oder eines Bewußtseinszustandes gedacht wird (Franz's *Shakespearegrammatik*, p. 212). Zuweilen, wenn er schlechter Laune war, behandelte er ihn allerdings wie einen Sakai (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan?*, viii). Das Verhältnis war nicht derart, daß es Johanna große Verlegenheit verursacht hätte. Ich bin willens es zu tun I am disposed, intend to do it. Das ist mir einerlei (126. 1. a) That is all the same to me. Das ist so Rechtens That is according to law. Sie waren deutschen Ursprungs. So gebet dem Kaiser | was des Kaisers ist | und Gotte | was Gottes ist (Matt. xxii. 21). Ich tu', was ich muß, der Ausgang ist Gottes (Hebbel's *Agnes Bernauer*, 4, 4). Dringt in die Häuser, was ihr darin findet, | Frauen und Kinder, Schätze, Hab' und Gut, | ist der Soldaten (Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, 5, 14). Und wessen sind die schönen Blumen, die Euch gegenüber die Fenster schmücken? (Herr's *Der König der Bernina*, V). Wenn er uns damals überfallen hätte, so wären wir alle des Todes gewesen If he had fallen upon us at that time we should all have been doomed. Das ist meines Amtes (Suttner's *Im Berghause*, p. 54) That is my duty, my work. Er ist von Adel He is of noble birth. Die Sache ist von großer Wichtigkeit. Seien Sie ohne Furcht. Er ist von schlechter Herkunft. Der Tisch ist von Holz. Er ist von denen (one of these men), die ihr Gelübde halten (Freytag).

An objective predicate genitive of quality is used after *machen to make*, *zeigen to show*, &c.: Jedenfalls rechne nicht darauf, mich anderen Sinnes zu machen (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, xii).

The gen. is quite common in the categories mentioned above in such expressions as those given in the illustrative examples and other similar ones, but in general it cannot be freely used. In

poetry, however, it is often employed where in plain prose it would be replaced by *von* with the *dat.*: Elisabeth ist meines Stammes, meines Geschlechts und Rangs (Schiller's *Maria Stuart*, I, 2). Das schwache Geschlecht, so wie es gewöhnlich genannt wird, | zeigte sich tapfer und mächtig und gegenwärtigen Geistes (Goethe's *H. u. D.*, vi, 102-103). The possessive *gen.* is, aside from certain set expressions, found only in rather choice language, and is replaced in colloquial speech by *gehören* with *dat.*: Das Haus gehört meinem Freunde.

B. The predicate complement may be an adjective or participle:

a. In the nominative after intransitives of incomplete predication and passives, now usually without grammatical forms except in the superlative (see 112. 1): Sie ist schön. Sie scheint betrübt. Das ist rührend. Karl ist der jüngste. Er wurde tot geschlagen. Here also belongs the perfect participle in the compound tenses of intransitives that are conjugated with *sein*: Er ist gekommen.

A noun is often used in the predicate with the force of an adjective, indicating a quality or characteristic of the person or thing which it represents: Seine (Fulda's) letzten Stücke heißen „Jugendfreunde“ und „Herosirat“; jenes ist trotz guter Erfindung durchweg Blumenthal-Kadelburg (Bartel's *Die deutsche Dichtung der Gegenwart*, p. 256). Du bist doch die geborene alte Jungfer (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. 1) You are a regular old maid.

Note 1. If it is desired not simply to predicate a certain quality of the subject, but to assign it to a definite class of objects or ideas, the predicate *adj.* is preceded by *ein* or negatively *kein*, and is inflected: Diese Kirsche ist sauer (sour), but eine saure (a sour kind). Das Exemplar, das ich bezogen (procured) habe, war ein gebundenes. Diese ganze Frage ist eine rein ästhetische. Der Genuß davon ist mehr ein sinnlicher, fein rein geistiger. Usage, however, goes farther, and employs also this construction as a more emphatic form of predication than the simple uninflected adjective: Die Aufregung war bedeutend, or more emphatically eine bedeutende. In the *pl.* *ein* of course drops out: Die Leistungen waren ganz hervorragende. This favorite construction has its roots in part in the natural tendency to generalize rather than make a specific predication. Thus also in English we often prefer *He is a kind-hearted fellow* to *He is kind-hearted*. The predicate noun is not needed in the German, as the inflected article or adjective suggests it. In part the cause of the spread of this construction lies in the fact that its use is necessary in the groups in (1), (3), (4), (5), and (6) in *Note 2*, below, and has spread from these groups to others.

Note 2. Some adjectives are principally used attributively, and are not commonly used as predicate complements except in poetry, but of course can be used attributively in the predicate: (1) Many derivatives in *isch* and *lich*: diebisch thievish, nächtlich nightly. Not Die Zusammenkunft war nächtlich, but eine nächtliche (Zusammenkunft understood). (2) Adjectives in *en*, *ern* made from names of materials: golden golden, hölzern wooden. In elevated diction and in figurative language, however, these adjectives are also used in the predicate; see 245. II. 3. c. (3) Adjectives in *ig* derived from adverbs of time and place: heutig of to-day, from heute; damalig of that time, from damals; dortig of that place, from dort. Not Diese Zeitung ist hiesig, but Dies ist die hiesige Zeitung This is the newspaper of this place. (4) All superlatives and the comparatives in 117. 2, all of which require an article before them, the noun being expressed or understood: Not Karl ist jüngst, but der jüngste. Die vordern Zimmer the front rooms. Dies sind die vordern Zimmer. (5) Verbal nouns, especially those in *ung*, do not usually take a predicate adjective, as the idea of condition or state which lies in the uninflected predicate adjective ill accords with that of activity contained in the verbal noun. In this case the attributive form is used: Die Verbreitung des Buchs ist eine schnelle. Die Ausnützung der Wagenplätze ist eine geringe. (6) A

present participle can only be used in the predicate when it has the force of an adjective; see 182. 1. A. b. It cannot now as formerly be used here with pure verbal force. It can, however, be freely used in the predicate as elsewhere in attributive form: Das ganze Verfahren ist ein durchaus den Gesetzen widersprechendes. Die Sprache des Buchs ist eine klare, einfache und allgemein verständliche, vom Herzen kommende und zum Herzen gehende. Im ganzen ist das Werk freilich kein den Gegenstand erschöpfendes. The constructions (5) and (6) find little favour with certain grammarians. The opponents of these constructions recommend that the predicate adjective or participle be replaced by a verb: Das Buch hat sich schnell verbreitet. Das ganze Verfahren widerspricht durchaus den Gesetzen. The use of the predicate adjective and participle is, however, widespread and easily explained by the tendency described toward the close of Note 1, above.

Note 3. On the other hand, a number of adjectives can only be used as a predicate complement; see 111. 7. c.

b. In the nom. as predicate appositive; see 104. 2. A. b.

c. Instead of the simple nom. construction the predicate is in certain instances, as in case of nouns, introduced by als and für: Er gilt als der beste von allen. Er wurde für unwürdig erklärt. He was pronounced unworthy.

C. The predicate complement may be a pronoun in the nom.: Sein Glück ist meines. Er bleibt derselbe. Das Pferd ist ein Säugetier; der Walfsch ist es (129. 2. C. (4)) auch.

a. In Swiss dialect the personal pronouns are frequently in the acc. when used as predicate: Seid Ihr ihn etwa selbst? (J. Gotthelf's *Uli der Pächter*, 76). Seht, da ist es ihn ja selber (Spitteler's *Conrad*, p. 52). Compare with popular English: *It is me, us*.

D. An Infinitive:

a. As a predicate or to complete the meaning of the predicate after the verbs enumerated in 185. B. I. 1. b: Er bleibt stehen.

b. As a predicate with zu, with the force of a gerundive; see 180. A.

E. An adverb: Die Schule ist aus. Die Tür ist zu.

F. A clause: Du bist nicht mehr, **der du warst**. Nicht jeder scheint, **was er ist**.

Agreement between Subject and Predicate.

253. The predicate agrees with the subject in number, and where it is possible in person, gender, and case.

I. Number.

1. If the subject is singular, the verb is also sing.: Das kleinste Haar wirft seinen Schatten.

a. Often in speaking *to* and sometimes also *of* persons of relatively higher social or official standing, the verb is in the pl., though the subject is in the sing.: General Manteuffel schreibt mir eben, daß Seine Majestät der König die Gnade gehabt haben, Dir diese Auszeichnung zu verleihen (Moltke an den Neffen Henry, 22. März 1864). Seine Majestät der König haben Allergnädigst geruht,

den Eisenbahnsekretären Goldammer in Halle a. S. und Lemme in Weissenfels bei dem Übertritt in den Ruhestand den Charakter als Rechnungsrat zu verleihen (*Vossische Zeitung*, No. 55, 1903). Gw. (euer) Excellenz wollen verzeihen Your excellency will be so kind as to pardon. (zu Edith) Gnädiges Fräulein hatten mir doch versprochen, mir das letzte Bild zu zeigen, das Sie gemalt haben (Fulda's *Das verlorene Paradies*, 1, 5). Wollen Herr Kommerzienrat wirklich diese Nacht noch zurückfahren? (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, 2, 3, where a first lieutenant addresses respectfully a visiting 'Kommerzienrat'). Die gnädige Frau sind ausgefahren (language of a servant) My mistress has gone out driving. It is difficult to define usage here accurately. Sturdy independent natures resist this servile style, while others, as on the one hand servants, and on the other hand persons that move in circles dominated by official or social formalities, employ it to show their respect and deference to superiors, or use it in general as a mere mark of esteem or politeness. It is sometimes used in mock-respectful tone: Herr Doktor wurden da katechisiert (Goethe's *Faust*, 1. 3523).

b. If the *dieß*, *daß*, *jenes*, *es*, or *welches* used in expressions of identity is subject, the verb agrees with the predicate. See 128. A. a; 129. 2. C. (1) and 251. 3. A; 141. 9. a; 148. a.

c. The grammatical subject *es* has no influence over the number, the verb agreeing with the logical subject: *Es zogen drei Bursche(n) wohl über den Rhein*.

d. If a subject in the sing. is associated, by means of the preps. mit *with*, samt *together with*, nebst *along with*, auf *upon*, nach *after*, with other words which logically though not formally constitute a part of the subject, the verb is in the sing.: *Das Schiff samt der Ladung und Mannschaft ging zu Grunde*. *Moses nebst seinem Bruder Aaron stieg auf den Berg Sinai*. *Schlag auf Schlag folgte*. *Ein Tag nach dem andern verstrich*. The pl. is also sometimes found after the first three of these prepositions in accordance with older usage as explained in 229. 2, under *nebst*, b.

e. If the predicate noun is in the plural, the verb is usually attracted into agreement with it rather than with the subject, even though the latter is in the sing.: *Mein alles sind meine Kinder*. *Alles, was du anbringst (bring forward), sind nur leere Entschuldigungen*. *Mein Umgang waren die Bauernjungen des benachbarten Dorfes und dessen Pfarrer* (C. F. Meyer). But we also find the verb in the sing., where the pl. predicate noun is felt as containing the idea of a mass or fixed amount: *Eine Krone ist (or sind) zehn Mark* (Sütterlin's *Die deutsche Sprache*, p. 327). If the subject is plural and the predicate is singular, the verb may agree either with the subject or predicate, more commonly with the former: *Gerötete Augen sind ein Zeichen innerer Erregung*. *Die Einwohner dieser Gegend ist ein eigentümlicher Schlag von Menschen* (Engelien's *Grammatik der neuhochdeutschen Sprache*, 5th ed., p. 373).

f. If the subject is sing. in form but has several adjective modifiers which do not qualify the one thing but each a different thing, the verb is in the pl.: *Die nördliche und südliche Hälfte scheinen unter gleichen*

Breitegraden ungefähr dieselbe Erdkrümmung darzubieten The northern and southern hemispheres appear to have about the same curvature on the same parallels.

g. A collective noun or noun of multitude in the sing. now usually requires the verb in the sing.: Das Heer ist versammelt. Das kleine Volk lief voraus. The earlier part of the period was not so completely under the domination of grammatical rule as the present. Luther frequently uses the plural here, or places the first verb in the sing. and all following ones in the plural: Aber das Volk | so (153. 5) jren Gott kennen | werden sich ermannen (Dan. xi. 32). Vnd alles Kriegsvold das bey jm war zoch hinauff | vnd tratten [h]erzu | vnd kamen gegen die Stad (Josh. viii. 11). The plural of a verb still occurs here in the classical period, but much more rarely: Wie eine rasende Menge mit Stäben, Beilen, Hämmern, Leitern, Stricken versehen, von wenig Bewaffneten begleitet, erst Kapellen, Kirchen und Klöster anfallen, die Andächtigen verjagen (Goethe's *Egmont*, 1, 2). In our time the plural here is quite rare in the literary language, and perhaps only found in a relative clause referring back to a collective noun, where it is also rare: Endlich teilte sich das Volk in eine rauhere Partei, welche . . . gerne nunmehr nachgeholt hätten, was, wie sie meinten, bei der Eroberung des Landes versäumt worden und die Italier für ihren heimlichen Haß mit offener Gewalt zu strafen begehrten (Felix Dahn's *Ein Kampf um Rom*). The older freedom of usage here is preserved in English: *The Council is or are of the opinion that, &c.*

If, however, a noun in the gen. pl., or a dat. pl. after von, or an appositive in the pl. follows the collective noun, the verb may be in the pl.: Dort hatten sich eine Masse chinesischer Bruchverkäufer angesammelt. Eine Anzahl von Beamten sind zusammen getreten. Eine Menge Äpfel lagen unter dem Baume. Also the singular can be used here, and in general the rule can be laid down that the use of the sing. and pl. depends upon whether the subject presents itself to the mind in the form of a closed mass or group, or as individuals: Ein Schwarm Bienen flog auf, but Eine Menge Hasen wurden geschossen (one at a time). Und an einer Stelle des Ufers lagen eine Masse Kieselsteine (Wildenbruch's *Neid*, p. 90). Später erschienen noch eine Menge anderer Besucher (W. Hegeler's *Pastor Klinghammer*, p. 17). Ein Schock Krebse kostete einen Pfennig (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, chap. 7). Unter der brennenden Mittagssonne kam ein Trupp Bauernburschen die Landstraße heraus (R. Huch's *Vita somnium breve*, I, p. 127).

Note 1. In the case of ein Paar, ein Dugend there is a difference of meaning involved, the pl. verb denoting an indefinite number, the sing. an exact number—*two, twelve*: Ein paar (a few) Häuser sind abgebrannt, but Draußen wartet ein Paar auf die Braut. Es kamen uns ein Dugend (a number) Husaren entgegen, but Das Dugend Cigarren kostet 1 Mark.

Note 2. The indefinite numerals viel, wenig, mehr, and genug were in early N.H.G. used as sing. neuter substantives, often with a dependent partitive gen., and accordingly when used as subject could have a sing. verb even though the reference was to a number of persons or things, while later usage requires here quite uniformly a plural verb: Wenn der gerechten viel ist | freuet sich das völd (Proverbs xxix. 2), but Aber diesem Rufe folgten heute nur wenig [see 130. 3. i, *Note*] (Fontane's *Quitt*, chap. 6). Luther also employed the plural here: Sintemal sich's viel unterwunden

haben (Luke i. 1). Denn es sind viel falscher Propheten ausgegangen in die Welt (1 John iv. 1).

Mehr als ein + a sing. subject may be used with a sing. or pl. verb: Mehr als ein Fall ist bekannt, or Es sind mehr als ein Fall bekannt. The sing. is more common.

h. Nichts als before a pl. noun is always found with a pl. verb as it simply has the force of nur: eine Fabrik, in welcher nichts als Nähmaschinen gemacht werden.

2. If the subject is pl., or if there are several subjects, the verb is pl.: Die Kinder bedürfen der Aufsicht. Gut und Ehre vermögen viel über die Menschen.

a. If there are several sing. subjects, the verb *may* agree with the nearest one, provided it does not thus stand after them all, in which case it is usually pl.: Mein Bruder kommt heute und meine Schwester, but Mein Bruder und meine Schwester kommen heute. Du aber bleibst Glaube | Hoffnung | Liebe | diese drei (1 Cor. xiii. 13). Mit Rachel und Ruth kam Herr Ernst Papphoff und sein Annschen (Raabe). There is now a strong tendency here to use the plural in accordance with strict formal principles: Da lagen der Tauffchein, der Paß und der Totenschein ihrer Mutter (Schubin's *Refugium peccatorum*, III). The verb must, however, be in the sing., even when it follows the different subjects, if for any reason it is expressly desired to associate the activity implied in the verb with each subject separately, as, for instance, to denote consecutiveness, to indicate a contrast, or to present the subjects as individuals: Da hebet sich's schwanenweiß, | und ein Arm und ein glänzender Nacken wird bloß (Schiller's *Der Taucher*) There out of the water something white as a swan raises itself and an arm is seen and then a glittering neck. Der Thron, zu dessen Rechten der Raja, ihm gegenüber meine Wenigkeit Platz nahm The throne at the right of which the rajah seated himself and opposite to him my humble self. „Woher aber dann die beiden Kinder?“ „Ich weiß nur, daß es ein Knabe und ein Mädchen ist von etwa acht und zehn Jahren“ (Ertl's *Der Handschuh*).

b. If the subjects are in part sing., in part pl., the verb if pl. should be so placed that it will not follow a sing. subject, or if the sing. verb be preferred it should precede a sing. subject: Das alte Theben (Thebes) und seine Trümmer sind tausendmal beschrieben worden. An der einen Seite standen mehrere Stühle, ein Tisch und ein Sessel, or An der einen Seite stand ein Tisch, ein Sessel und mehrere Stühle. Wer weiß, ob nicht morgen schon dein innigstes Sehnen dahin geht, es möge Pech, Schwefel und Quadersteine auf die Teilnehmer, die Mitwirkenden an deiner großen Feier herabregnen (Raabe's *Der Dräumling*, XIII). Da waren Lärm und Zank, Unfrieden und böse, ärgerliche Gesichter (id.).

c. In the case that several co-ordinate *singular* subjects are felt as forming a distinct collective idea, a close union or oneness of idea, the sing. verb may be used: Haus und Hof ist verkauft. Lob und Dank sei dem Herrn. Freude und Jubel schallt uns entgegen. Arm und Reich ist (or sind) im Tode gleich, but always Die Armen und die Reichen sind im Tode gleich. Na, na, da steht man wieder mal, daß Alter, Erfahrung und Grämlichkeit nicht vor Torheit schützt (Raabe's *Der Lar*, p. 150). Es kamen Tage, an denen die Arbeit, die Sorge zu viel und zu groß war (R. Voss's

Psyche, chap. 7). Er sagte, daß ihm dafür meine Stellung und meine Zukunft viel zu sehr am Herzen liege (M. Dreyer's *Der Probekandidat*, p. 22). Sie betraten die Kaserne, aus der Signalblasen, Lärm und Pfeifen ertönte (Ompfeda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XLIII). Two subjects can express a oneness of idea if they are opposites or complements of each other, and thus show one idea in all its range of meanings from the two extremes: Weil ich weiß, was ein guter Wandel nicht bloß vor Gott, sondern auch vor den Menschen bedeutet und daß Glück und Unglück daran hängt (Fontane's *Quitt*, chap. 7). Es sollte Meer und Land nicht Einem dienen (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 1, 5). Des Edeln Wort und Tat klingt noch nach Jahren wieder. Of course the verb is in the pl. if such words are considered separately: Denn hier sind Recht und Unrecht nah verwandt (Goethe's *Tasso*, 2, 4). Gut und böse streiten wunderlich in dir (Frenssen's *Das Heimatsfest*, 3, 1).

Opposed to the usage described above is a formal principle which requires strict grammatical agreement: Unauslöschlicher Groll und Gram erfüllten jeden Winkel ihrer Seele (Isolde Kurz's *Das Vermächtnis der Tante Susanne*).

The sing. is also used in case of a general or indefinite reference: Keiner und keine bleibe daheim (Rosegger). Diesen hier mußte wohl jeder und jede schön finden (Spielhagen's *Freigeboren*, p. 148).

d. If a single pl. subject or several sing. or pl. subjects are felt as forming the idea of a firm mass or fixed amount, the verb is in the sing.: Es wurde nur fünf Prozent (96. 4. 1) der Masse gerettet. 10 Pfennig (96. 4. 1) ist mehr als 5 Pfennig. Ein Kilo und 327 Gramm ist (not sind) genug. Zweimal zwei ist vier. Zwei Mark und noch 2 Mark sind or ist 4 Mark. Zwei Taler und 4 Groschen sind or ist genug. Here the pl. of the verb is used wherever instead of the conception of oneness the idea of two or more distinct units of the same order occur to the mind, but not if one unit of one order and a number of a lower order (as in the third example) are used and the reference is to a firm mass.

e. In case several subjects are followed by a neut. pronoun which refers to the previously mentioned subjects collectively or distributively, the verb is in the sing.: Die Öffnungen der Mauer, die soliden Stellen derselben, die Pfeiler, jedes hatte seinen besondern Charakter. Seine fortgesetzte Aufmerksamkeit, ohne daß er zudringlich gewesen wäre; sein treuer Beistand bei verschiedenen unangenehmen Zufällen; sein gegen ihre Eltern zwar ausgesprochenes, doch ruhiges und nur hoffnungsvolles Werben, da sie freilich noch sehr jung war: das alles nahm sie für ihn ein.

f. In connection with the conjunctions *oder* or, *entweder* — *oder* *either* — *or*, *weder* — *noch* *neither* — *nor*, *sowohl* — *als* *both* — *and*, *as well* — *as*, *nicht allein* (or *bloß* or *nur*) — *sondern* auch *not only* — *but also*, *nicht sowohl* — *als* *vielmehr* *not so much* — *as*, *desgleichen* *likewise*, *wie* auch *as also*, *and*, *teils* — *teils* *partly* — *partly*, &c., the different subjects are usually considered singly and hence the verb agrees with one of them — the next one to it — and is understood with the others: Werden Ihr Bruder und Ihre Schwester kommen? Nein, beide können sie nicht kommen, aber jedenfalls wird mein Bruder oder meine Schwester kommen. Sowohl meine Schwestern wie auch mein Bruder wird

kommen or more smoothly Sowohl meine Schwestern werden kommen, wie auch mein Bruder. Nicht allein mein Bruder, sondern auch meine Schwester wird kommen. Nicht mein Bruder kommt, sondern meine Schwester. Nicht meine Brüder, sondern meine Schwester kommt. Nicht meine Schwester, sondern meine Brüder kommen. Nicht sowohl die alten Anschauungen der Römer in Stadt und Land als vielmehr das Wohlergehen der außeritalischen Provinzen war für die Politik der römischen Kaiser maßgebend. Zur Reise fehlte mir teils Zeit, teils Lust, teils Geld.

After all these conjunctions except such as oder, entweder — oder, nicht — sondern, which positively exclude the statement in the one proposition or the other, the verb can also be in the pl., as that which is predicated of one subject applies to them all: Sowohl meine Schwester als auch mein Bruder werden kommen. Weder meine Schwester noch mein Bruder werden kommen. Even after oder, the pl. of the verb may be used, if the strict exclusive force of the conjunction disappears and it takes on the meaning of und: Wolf oder Bär kommen selten davon, wenn ein Lappe ihnen aufs Blatt hält.

g. If the subject of the sentence is the name of a book or play consisting of a pl. noun or several nouns, the verb is sometimes in the sing., sometimes in the pl., the former especially when the subject is a couple of proper names linked by und and not preceded by a pl. article, or when the predicate is a noun in the nom. sing. even though the subject is preceded by a pl. article, otherwise the verb is now more commonly in the pl.: Romeo und Julie wird heute gegeben. Was „Hermann und Dorothea“ an metrischer Vollkommenheit gewonnen hätte, wäre wohl an der Ursprünglichkeit und Natürlichkeit der Darstellung wieder verloren gegangen (remark on Goethe's *Hermann und Dorothea*, Weimar ed. vol. 50, p. 383). Die Räuber ist ein Schauspiel von Schiller. Daß die Räuber bei ihrem Erscheinen und namentlich bei den ersten Aufführungen einen Sturm von Begeisterung erregten, kann uns nicht wunder nehmen (Bellermann's *Schillers Dramen*, I, p. 53). Fichtes „Reden an die deutsche Nation“ übten eine tiefgehende Wirkung aus. Die Piccolomini werden heute gegeben.

h. If the subject is accompanied by explanatory words in the appositional construction, the verb may agree strictly with the grammatical subject or often agrees with the appositive, when this more vividly represents the idea contained in the subject than the subject itself: Viel trägt dazu bei, daß alles, was zum Hause gehört, also Eheleute und Ehehalten (servants), nun für einige Monate zusammen bleiben kann (v. Hörmann). Meine Kinderjahre, die schöne, unvergeßliche Zeit, verfloß mir als Berliner Schusterjungen — Rodenberg.

i. A plural subject or several subjects in the nominative absolute construction found in subject clauses do not influence the number of the verb, which is invariably in the sing., as the reference is to a single idea; see 265. B. b. (2), 3rd paragraph.

j. A few originally pl. nouns are now often felt as singular, and hence the verb is often in the sing. when such words are used as subjects; see 96. i.

3. The predicate noun agrees with the subject in number: Kleobis und Biton waren Brüder.

a. The predicate noun does not agree with the subject in number if it is a name of a material or a collective or abstract noun: *Ihr seid das Salz der Erde. Die Franzosen sind ein romanisches Volk. Gute Kinder sind die Freude ihrer Eltern.*

In a number of cases the predicate noun may be in the sing. or pl., according as it is desired to give expression to the abstract idea of quality or the concrete one of different individuals: *Beide Brüder sind Soldat or Soldaten.*

b. Also the interrogative pronouns *wer* and *was* do not agree with the subject when they are used as predicate, but remain uniformly in the sing.: *Wer waren diese Leute? Was sind diese Männer?*

c. When the subject is the polite form of the personal pronoun, which is really 3rd pers. pl. in form, though it is used as 2nd pers. sing., the predicate stands in the sing. if the reference is to a singular subject: *Sie, mein Herr, waren mein Retter.*

d. The predicate does not agree in number with the subjects *dies, das, jenes, es, welches* used in expressions of identity; see 128. A. a; 129. 2. C. (1); 141. 9. a; 148. a.

II. Person.

The verb agrees with its subject in person. If there are several subjects of different persons the following rules are usually followed:

1. If the subjects are connected by *und* or conjunctions of kindred force as *sowohl — als* (or *wie*) *both — and, as well — as*, *wie auch* or *sonie as also*, the first person has the preference over the second and third, and the second person the preference over the third, and often a pronoun comprehending the different subjects is added: *Ich und du haben gleiche Schicksale*, or *Ich und du, wir haben gleiche Schicksale. Du und dein Bruder seid meine Freunde, or Du und dein Bruder, ihr seid meine Freunde. Ich sowohl wie du sind das gewohnt. Sowohl ich als mein Freund, wir sind dafür verantwortlich.* Occasionally the third person is preferred: *Ich weiß, daß du und mein Vater in Krieg verwickelt sind* (Börne).

a. If sing. subjects are connected by *sowohl — als* (or *wie*), *wie auch*, *sonie*, it is also common for the verb to agree with the first subject in the sing., even though it stands after both, especially if the emphasis is upon the first subject: *Ich sowohl wie du bin* (or *sind*) *es gewohnt. Du sowohl wie ich bist* (or *sind*) *es gewohnt*, but usually *Du und ich* (wir) *sind es gewohnt.*

b. Sometimes in case of subjects connected by *und* the verb is in the sing., agreeing with the nearest subject: *In dieser Sache irrst du und ich. Ich und alle Welt erkennt das an.*

2. If different subjects of different persons are opposed or in contrast to each other, or are considered separately, the verb agrees in person and number with the nearest subject: *Du bist es gewohnt, nicht ich, or Du, nicht ich bin es gewohnt. Weder du bist es gewohnt noch ich, or Weder du noch ich bin es gewohnt, or Weder du noch ich sind es gewohnt.*

Du oder ich müßte (ought) es gewohnt sein. Ich oder du müßtest es gewohnt sein. Nicht nur ich sondern auch du bist es gewohnt. Theils unser Freund, theils ich, theils du bist daran schuld. Theils unser Freund, theils du, theils ich bin daran schuld. Sometimes the verb agrees with the first subject if the statement only holds good for it: Ein alt Gesetz, nicht ich, gebietet dir (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 5, 3). It also agrees with the first subject if the following subjects are regarded as only explanatory: Keiner von uns, weder du noch ich, ist es gewohnt (D. Sanders).

3. If the subject is a noun or a pronoun and the predicate a personal pronoun, the verb agrees with the predicate in *person* and *number*: Der Mann, von dem Sie sprechen, bin ich. Ich bin es It is I. For further examples see 128. A. a; 129. 2. C. (1); 141. 9. a and 251. I. 3. A; 148. a. See also 151. 3. B. c, toward the close of the article.

4. The person and number of the verb in relative clauses present several idiomatic peculiarities that are considered at length in 151. 3. B. a, b, c.

III. Gender.

1. The predicate noun does not in general agree with the subject in gender, as it has its own gender: Sein Tun ist der Ausdruck seiner Liebe.

2. The predicate noun can assume a grammatical form in accordance with the natural sex of the person represented by the subject in only one case — when the subject represents a person or something that is personified. Then the predicate noun may take a masc. form if the subject is represented as a male and a fem. form if the subject is represented as a female, provided, however, such forms are elsewhere in common use for persons (see 245. I. 6. 2): Gott ist mein Zeuge. Hunger ist der beste Koch. Das Unglück ist der beste Lehrmeister. Das Mädchen wird Erzieherin. Das ist unsere Freundin. Sie ist eine gemeine Diebin. Die Natur war die erste Erzieherin des Menschen. Die Nationalbank ist Inhaberin des Wechsels. Die Gottesfurcht ist die Erzieherin des menschlichen Geschlechts, der Anfang (without fem. form) der Weisheit, die Mutter aller Tugenden. In the fourth sentence the natural sex, not the grammatical gender of the subject, has influenced the gender of the predicate, while in the second sentence and the last three the grammatical gender of the subjects has suggested the form of the predicate, as things have no sex. In the third sentence the subject is a neuter noun which cannot suggest sex at all, and thus the mind is free here to select a gender according to fancy.

a. The predicate noun does not assume a fem. form to agree with a fem. subject when it is the abstract idea pure and simple, devoid of all reference to sex and its attributes, that is before the mind: (Maria Stuart speaking to Queen Elisabeth) Regierte Recht, so läget ihr vor mir | im Staube jetzt, denn ich bin Euer König (Schiller). Die Frau ist hier Herr und Meister im Hause. Meine Mutter konnte ihres Verdrusses nicht Herr und Meister werden. Die Bibel ist unser bester Führer auf unserm Lebenswege. But the force of the gender of the subject often asserts itself even here, especially when the predicate has inflected modifiers before it: Sie wußte ihre Überraschung zu verbergen und war die unumschränkte Herrin ihrer Gebärden (Raabe's *Im alten Eisen*, xiii). Some words,

however, as *Gast*, *Kerl*, *Mensch*, have regularly the masc. form for reference to females as well as males, as the idea of sex is not felt: *Alles in allem, sie ist ein guter Kerl* (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 378). *Agnes, mein' Tochter, hör' mal zu . . . Du bist ein vernünftiger Mensch* (Sudermann's *Fritzchen*, 2).

If an adjective or pronoun is used in the predicate substantively referring to the abstract idea contained in some preceding adjective or noun, the neuter gender is used: *Mein Bruder ist reich, was ich nicht bin. Es ist wahr, Bräutigam und Deichhauptmann sind fast incompatible; aber wenn ich letzteres nicht wäre, müßte ich doch gar nicht, wer es sein sollte* (Bismarck to his betrothed, Feb. 23, 1847). *Er* (i. e. *Cäsar*) *war ein großer Redner, Schriftsteller und Feldherr, aber jedes davon ist er nur geworden, weil er ein vollendeter Staatsmann war* (Mommsen's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. xi).

IV. Case.

The predicate word agrees with the subject in case, and thus both stand in the nominative: *Erst wenn ich auf die Berge komme, da werd' ich so recht ich selbst* (Wilbrandt's *Die gute Lorelei*, vi). For an exceptional usage in Switzerland see 252. 2. C. a. The adjective here in general loses its inflection except in the superlative. In an earlier period the predicate adjective agreed with the subject in gender and case in all the degrees of comparison. Fossil remnants of this former usage still exist; see 111. 8. Sometimes (see 252. 2. A. c) a prep. phrase or a gen. stands in the relation of a predicate adjective, just as they often stand in the relation of an attributive adjective: *Der Ring ist von Gold* (instead of *golden*). *Er ist unsrer Gesinnung* (instead of *gesinnt wie wir*). *Er gilt ärztlich nicht für ersten Ranges* (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. xxiii).

SUBORDINATE ELEMENTS OF A SENTENCE.

254. The subordinate elements of a sentence are called modifiers. They are divided into the following general classes:

1. *Adjective modifiers*, which modify a noun or pronoun.
2. Modifiers of the verb, adjective, and adverb, which fall into two classes — *objective* and *adverbial modifiers*.
3. *Independent elements*, which are not related grammatically to other parts of the sentence.

Adjective Modifiers.

255. Adjective modifiers are treated as follows:

I. Adjective and Participle.

Adjectives and participles modify nouns and pronouns and agree with them in *gender*, *number*, and *case*, except when used without an article or other pronominal adjective in the appositive relation, in which case they remain uninflected: *Der fleißige Knabe lernt. Der blühende Rosenstrauch duftet. Der beleidigte Freund verzeiht. Ein gutes Buch*

ist eine nützliche Gesellschaft. Appositive adjectives: Durch ein Gebirge, wüßt und leer, wie die Erde beim Beginn der Schöpfung, hat Friedrich der Große.

a. When an adjective modifies two or more nouns having different genders or representing different persons or things, the strict grammatical rule requires the repetition of the adjective before each noun: mit solchem Eifer und solcher Beständigkeit, Wörterbuch der deutschen und der französischen Sprache. This rule would often require tiresome repetitions, and hence is in familiar conversation and even in serious discourse frequently disregarded when no ambiguity would arise: großer Schmerz und Angst instead of großer Schmerz und große Angst; mit seiner gewöhnlichen Trockenheit und Ernst (Goethe); ein geweihtes Barett und Degen (Becker); den ersten besten Knüttel und Holzscheit (Raabe); mit einem verzerrten Lächeln, in dem geheimer Grimm und Scham sich deutlich genug ausprägen (Marriot).

The simple article and pronominal adjectives are not in such cases so easily suppressed as qualifying adjectives, and are more commonly repeated, even in familiar style: Der König und die Kaiserin. Eigens Haus und [qualifying adjective not repeated] Kindersegen erschien dem römischen Bürger als das Ziel und der [article repeated] Kern des Lebens (Mommsen's *Römische Geschichte*, I, chap. v). Frequently, however, in case of the def. art. each noun may drop its article, and thus the awkward repetition may be avoided: Eingang zu Garten und Regelpark instead of zu dem Garten und zu der Regelpark. This is especially the case, as in the preceding example, when the nouns are connected by und. The article, however, cannot be suppressed here if its demonstrative force becomes prominent, as for instance where it points to a following restrictive relative clause: Möchte das schöne Buch, das uns Grimm geschenkt, überall mit der Wärme und dem Ernst aufgenommen werden, mit denen es geschrieben ist (Wilhelm Bölsche in *Deutsche Rundschau*, Dezember 1895, p. 472). The simple indefinite article is rarely omitted: Er kaufte eine Taube, eine Gans und einen Hasen. If the different nouns each take a definite article or pronominal adjective of the same form, it is necessary to use it but once, even if the governing nouns are in different numbers: die Gnade, Weisheit und Liebe Gottes; die Anordnung seiner Bibliothek und Gesellschaftszimmer.

If the article modifies two nouns both representing the same person or thing, it should, of course, only be used once, while, on the other hand, if the nouns represent different persons or things which it is desired to contrast or to mark especially as distinct and separate, the adjective should be repeated before each noun: Die Schuld trifft allein den Pfarrer und Ortsschulinspektor M. (one person), but leider muß der Deutsche Berlin und München einander noch als die politische und die künstlerische Hauptstadt des Reiches gegenüberstellen and Der Pfarrer und der Schultheiß (two persons) leben öfters mit einander in Uneinigkeit.

II. Attributive Genitive.

1. A noun or pronoun in the genitive may modify a noun.

The following general rules with respect to order are here given, other special ones are mentioned below. In poetic style the genitive often stands *before*, but in prose usually *after* the noun it modifies: des Feuers Macht, or more commonly die Macht des Feuers. The genitive of origin, however, and the subjective and possessive genitives in case of names of persons, or less frequently of nouns representing persons, may stand either before or after the noun, often with a shade of emphasis, before it when unemphatic, after it when emphatic or conspicuous: Des Dichters [i. e. Hebbel's] **Jugend** war reich an Entbehrungen und Demütigungen, und nicht viel fehlte, so wäre der Knabe von seinem Vater zum Maurerhandwerk gezwungen worden. Davor rettete ihn des Vaters **Tod** (A. Bartels). Luther steht grammatisch der mhd. (mittelhochdeutschen) Periode näher als der nhd. (neuhochdeutschen); die Sprache **Spiegels** ist nhd. (F. Kauffmann). Die Geschichte kennt keines Volkes **Anfänge** (Ernst Curtius' *Griechische Geschichte*, I, chap. i). In earlier periods the position of the genitive before the governing noun was much more common than to-day. This older usage survives in compounds: Feuerbrunst, Landesverteidigung, &c. Not only the older word-order, but also the older accent survives in these compounds; see 249. II. 1. B. *Note*. The genitive *must* still precede its governing noun when the latter is also modified by a pronominal adjective: Die Tote war unsere und des ganzen Dorfes Wohltäterin. The genitives *dessen* and *deren*, whether they be relatives or demonstratives, must precede the governing noun: die Gräfin, ihre Verwalterin und deren (*the latter's*) Tochter.

If there are two genitive modifiers of a noun, one genitive should stand on each side of the noun, the genitive of origin preceding: Schwabs Leben Schillers Schwab's 'Life of Schiller,' Ränkes Geschichte der römischen Päpste. The dependent gen. should not be cut off from the noun upon which it depends: Die Anhänglichkeit sämtlicher Angestellten an mich (not die Anhänglichkeit an mich sämtlicher Angestellten) the attachment of all the employees to me. A gen. dependent upon a gen. should follow it, except that sometimes a dependent gen. of a noun denoting a person can precede a governing fem. or a plural: die Geschichte der Erbauung der Stadt, trotz des Verbotes des Doktors, während der Krankheit meines Freundes, or während meines Freundes Krankheit. So lang's daran nicht mangelt und an frischem Mut, lach' ich der Fürsten Herrschsucht und Ränke (Goethe's *Götz*, 1, 2). A gen. of a noun denoting a person may also precede a modified governing substantive: trotz Weltens naseweisen, unverschämten Einredens, trotz der Frau Almalie abweichenden Kopfschüttelns und Lächelns (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 41).

The governing noun is usually omitted in such expressions as bei Müllers; see 93. 1. a.

The attributive genitive expresses different classes of ideas briefly described in the following articles. These categories are not all peculiar to the attributive use, but several of them are found in the genitive which is used in connection with verbs, adjectives, and participles. On the other hand, the peculiar genitive which is employed in connection with certain verbs is also used with nouns derived from these verbs, as explained in I, below.

A. *Genitive of Origin*, denoting source, cause, authorship: Der Sohn des Fürsten, die Kinder dieser Frau, die Nachkommen Abrahams, die Taten des Herkules, die Verwüstungen zweier Kriegsjahre, Goethes Faust, Schillers Werke. This same idea is found in the genitive used in the predicate with the verbs in 252. 2. A. c.

a. This one use of this case form has given to it the name of *genitive* (from Latin *genitivus pertaining to generation or birth*), which has become a fixed name not only for this use, but also for all the following relations expressed by the same case form.

B. *Possessive Genitive*, denoting possession, inherence, a belonging to, association with, or relation to: Das Haus meines Bruders, die Weisheit des Sokrates, der Mut des Helden, die Blätter des Baumes, die Straßen der Stadt, die Kühle des Abends, der Schnee der Alpen, die Kameraden des Soldaten, das Haupt des Stammes, der Bürgermeister der Stadt, der Vater des Kindes. This is a very productive category from which have probably sprung A, C, F, G. The same idea is found in the genitive used in the predicate with the group of verbs in 252. 2. A. c.

a. In English we here sometimes use the objective after the prep. *to*, where in German the gen. should be employed: Sie ist eine Schwester meiner ersten Frau She is a sister to my first wife. Sometimes it is possible in German to use either gen. or dat. with a slight shade of difference: ein Vater der Armen, or more impressively den Armen ein Vater a father to the poor. Sometimes in both German and English there is a marked difference of meaning between the dat. and gen.: dem Verfolgten ein Freund *a friend to the persecuted man*, but ein Freund des Verfolgten *a friend of the persecuted man*. When the modifying word is a pronoun the gen. must in all these cases be replaced by the prepositional construction with *von* or *zu*; see 229. 2, *zu*, II. 1. B. b.

b. The gen. must be replaced by the dat. with *von* in case of names of places ending in a sibilant; see 86. 2. e.

c. The gen. is often replaced by the appositional construction in case of proper nouns; see 94. 3. A. c.

d. If a dependent genitive which precedes its governing noun is itself modified by other attributive elements containing nouns, each element maintains its own syntactical force and its own proper inflection, while in English the different elements are considered as forming a compound, and hence the *s* is added at the end of the compound, even though the last component to which the *s* is added is in fact in the objective case after the prep. *of*: Dieser eine war Till Eulenspiegel, des Herzogs von Braunschweig Hofnarr (Lienhard's *Till Eulenspiegel*, Der Fremde) This one was the duke of Brunswick's court-fool.

C. *Subjective Genitive*, which denotes the agent from whom the action proceeds: die Rüge des Lehrers the reproof that comes from the teacher, die Liebe einer Mutter, der Gesang der Vögel.

D. *Objective Genitive*, which denotes the object toward which the activity is directed: die Erziehung der Kinder the education of the children, die Erbauung des Hauses.

a. This objective gen. is limited in general to those substantives that contain a verbal stem which has a pronounced transitive force: die Erfüllung (from *erfüllen to fulfil*) der Pflicht. Earlier in the period verbal nouns in general, even though they did not have pronounced transitive force, could take an objective gen., while to-day a prepositional object is either required

or is much more common, except in poetry, where older usage still lingers: Aber ich kenne euch | das jr nicht Gottes liebe [now in prose Liebe zu Gott] in euch habt (John v. 42). Und überall . . . fand ich den gleichen Haß der [in plain prose gegen die] Tyrannei (Schiller's *Tell*, 2, 2). Ich tritt aus Haß der Städte und nicht um euren Dank (Uhland's *Die Döfninger Schlacht*). Older usage, however, is still the rule in compounds: Menschenliebe, Menschenhaß, &c.

A verbal noun formed from a verb governing a gen. or dat. cannot take an objective gen., but where such verbs are also used with an acc. and hence are also felt as transitive verbs the objective gen. can of course be used: der Genuß (from genießen with gen. or acc.) des Weines, der Mißbrauch amtlicher Stellung; die Erinnerung des gleichen Schicksals (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 5, 3), or more commonly die Erinnerung an das gleiche Schicksal. The gen. in the last example may be explained by the fact that instead of sich (acc.) erinnern with gen. the simple verb is sometimes used with a direct object: Er erinnerte eine Witte (Goethe). Deutlich erinnere ich sein Gesicht (Frenssen's *Das Heimatsfest*, 2, 5). The gen. after Erinnerung may be explained in another way; see I, below.

Throughout the period attempts have been repeatedly made to extend this usage to verbal nouns made from verbs which govern the dative, which practice is quite generally condemned by grammarians: Daß er mich mit Entfugung seiner eignen Glückseligkeit glücklich gemacht habe (Lessing, 2, 40). Von jener erlauchenswürdigen Entfugung der Krone (Schiller, 4, 93). Very commonly in case of Dienst: der Dienst Gottes (Goethe), Gottesdienst. Eine Entfugung alles dessen, was man bisher geliebt und für gut befunden hat (Goethe). Jeder von den 40 Akademikern in Paris hat von der Beiwohnung einer Session einen Silbergroschen (Jean Paul's *Teufelspapiere*, 1, 10). Also in the language of our time: zur Abhilfe der dringendsten Bedürfnisse, zur Steuerung des Unfugs, die Beiwohnung des Manövers, &c. Some of these expressions are difficult to avoid, but grammarians recommend a change of word or recourse to a prep. phrase: zur Befriedigung der dringendsten Bedürfnisse. Er zürnt mir, but sein Zorn auf mich. Sie widerstanden den Römern, but ihr Widerstand gegen die Römer. Er entsagt dem Throne, but die Entfugung auf Ansprüche, also in the form of a true compound, as in Thronentsagung. The genitive after Entfugung, as in the example given above, may be explained in another way, namely, according to I, below, as the reflexive construction is also sometimes used: Entfugen Sie sich im guten aller Ansprüche (Lessing's *Die glückliche Erbin*, 1, 2).

Verbal nouns made from verbs requiring a prep. object usually retain the same prep. construction: Er spottet über den Armen and der Spott über den Armen.

b. Sometimes after trans. verbal stems the context alone shows whether the subjective or objective gen. is meant: die Liebe Gottes *the love that comes from God*, or now less commonly *our love for God*. The use of a possessive before a governing noun or of some appropriate preposition instead of the genitive will usually distinguish the objective gen. from the subjective: Seine Verachtung der Menschen his contempt for men, die Liebe zu Gott love to God, der Haß gegen den Tyrannen. The subjective gen. can be distinguished by placing it before the noun that is to be modified, except in case of relative pronouns, which must always precede even when used as object: Gottes Liebe *love that comes from God*; but also Dieses Ururteil, dessen (objective gen.) Bekämpfung uns schon viel Mühe gekostet hat *This prejudice, the combating of which has already cost us a good deal of trouble*. If there are two genitives, one a subjective, the other an objective gen., the latter is usually replaced by a prep. phrase, or enters into a compound with the governing noun: Die Verachtung der Christen gegen den Tod, or very frequently die Todesverachtung der Christen the contempt of the Christians for death.

c. A personal pronoun rarely stands in the objective gen. Some other construction must usually here be chosen: die Liebe zu ihm or gegen ihn love

for him. However, the objective gen. of a personal pronoun is quite common where it is used as a reflexive pronoun: Beherrschung seiner selbst control of himself, das Gefühl seiner selbst. So kann durch das Opfer unserer selbst wenigstens Weib und Kind gerettet werden (Sudermann's *Teja*, 5).

Also nouns rarely stand in the objective gen. in those cases where they are without an article, such as abstract nouns denoting materials when used in a partitive sense. The gen. is here replaced by von with dat.: Menschenbedürfnis konnte zumeist ohne viel Bitten auf ein Vorsehen von Speise und Trunk rechnen (Jensen's *Das Bild im Wasser*, chap. i).

E. *Genitive of Material*, denoting that of which something consists: ein Schmuck des feinsten Goldes, der Strom seiner Gedanken, ein Dach schattender Buchen a roof of shady beeches, der Zweige laubiges Gitter the leafy trellis-work of the branches. Ungern vermiss' ich ihn doch, den alten kattunen Schlafrock | echt ostindischen Stoffs (Goethe's *H. u. D.*, I, 33-4). Die Sonne versinkt hinter einer Wehr weißer Berge im Westen (Ernst Zahn's *Wie dem Kaplan Longinius die Welt aufging*). This category is closely related to H.

a. The gen. here is not common in plain prose, and is now largely confined to figurative or poetic language. In prose the gen. is usually replaced by von; see in 229. 2, the prep. von, f.

F. *Genitive of Quality or Characteristic*: Waren erster Güte goods of the best quality, Dinge dieser Art things of this sort, einer seines Schlags one of his stamp, stripe, ein Mann der Tat, eine Droschke zweiter Klasse, ein Pferd arabischer Rasse, ein Werk der Barmherzigkeit. Es handelt sich leider um Dinge des bittersten Ernstes. Gerüchte sind in Umlauf gesetzt worden des Inhalts, daß, &c. Reports have been set in circulation to the effect that, &c. This same idea is found in the genitive used in the predicate with the verbs in 252. 2. A. c.

a. The gen. is here often replaced by the dat. with von: Waren von verschiedener Güte, ein Weib von schöner Gestalt, &c.

G. *Appositive or Specifying Genitive*: der Fehler des Argwohn's the fault of always entertaining mistrust, das Laster der Trunksucht the vice of intemperance. Friedrich der Zweite erhielt den Beinamen des Großen. Die Gleichheit der (in, with respect to) Gesinnung ist das festeste Band der Freundschaft. Die Zeit der Kreuzzüge the time of the Crusades.

a. Also the appositional construction can here be used, the appositive agreeing with the preceding word in case or standing in the nom., cut off by quotation marks: die bösen Sitten, Müßiggang und Trunkenheit. Er hat den Namen „Kleiner Schalk“ erhalten. The appositional construction is the rule with proper names: die Stadt Berlin the city of Berlin, das Königreich Preußen the kingdom of Prussia, der Monat Mai, or simply der Mai the month of May, or simply May, &c.

b. This gen. is often replaced by an infin. with zu: Die Kunst zu schreiben war den Ägyptern (Egyptians) bekannt. The infinitive phrase is more natural than the gen. of a noun where the dependent word has an object, predicate, or adverbial modifier, as it admits of greater freedom of movement, and can be made to convey the thought of a complete proposition: auf dem Wege der Besserung, but verschiedene

Weg Deutsch zu treiben, der Weg reich zu werden, der leichteste Weg zum Ruhm zu gelangen. Unter allen kläglichen Rollen gibt es keine kläglichere als die mehr zu gelten als zu sein (Mommson's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. x). The zu in this construction had originally its literal meaning of designating a goal, end, purpose, result, as can still be seen in the examples with Weg. To-day, however, this original idea is little felt, as the zu has become a mere form to join an appositive to a noun or pronoun, as in the first and the last example. For the present method of expressing the ideas of purpose and result see IV. 2. a, below.

H. *Partitive Genitive*, denoting the whole, of which only a part is taken: die Hälfte meines Vermögens, der erste Vers des Liedes, eine Flasche des besten Weins, einer meiner Kameraden. Unter der Pelzmütze zeigt sich ein kleiner Teil eines gutmütigen, gebräunten Gesichts. The same idea is found in the genitive used with the verbs in 260. See also c, below.

a. In case of common nouns after the indefinite pronominal adjectives, indefinite pronouns, and nouns denoting weight, measure, extent, or quantity, also in case of certain proper names, this gen. has in the language of every day usually gone over into the appositional construction. This important construction is treated at length in 145 (read carefully the *Notes* there under b, c, e, f, g) and 94. 3. A, and b thereunder. Attention is called here to the peculiar word-order often found in this appositional construction when the word indicating the part is a noun denoting an indefinite amount, or more commonly an indefinite pronoun. The word denoting the whole may precede the word denoting the part, and often introduces the proposition: Es ist Wein die Menge da. Solche Fehler können die Menge im Plinius sein (Lessing). Harmonisches Getöse war wenig dabei (Raabe's *Horn von Wanza*, xvi). Das (i. e. Ach, du bist ja ein dummer Junge) sagt er auch immer, und Antwort ist's doch keine (Maria Janitschek's *Einer Mutter Sieg*, xviii). Gäste waren wenige da (Ertl's *Walpurga*). Gefahr ist nicht die Spur (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, xiv). Schwein habe ich keines (Suttner's *Im Berghause*, p. 10). Schmerz empfand ich keinen (Isolde Kurz's *Nachbar Werner*). Mit dem Kleingeld hapert's, das ist mein altes Übel, und großes hab' ich keins anzureißen (Halbe's *Der Strom*, p. 19). Aber Geld sieht man keins! (Karl Schönherr's *Sonnwendtag*, p. 9). Sorgen braucht er sich keine zu machen (Ertl's *Auswanderer*). Ähnliche Geschichten gibt es unzählige (H. Seidel's *Hundgeschichten*). The word-order in a number of these sentences indicates clearly that the word denoting the whole is no longer felt as belonging to the substantive in an attributive relation, but that it is felt as the subject or object of the verb. As the subject it regulates the number of the verb, as in the sentence from Lessing. As an emphatic object it may introduce the proposition causing inversion, as in the sentence from Suttner and the examples following it. This construction which is flourishing so vigorously in German was also once common in English: But there is gold and silver gret plentee (Mandeville). Silver and gold have I none (Acts iii. 6).

A pronoun dependent upon these groups of words, however, less

commonly takes the appositional construction. It is either placed in the dat. after *von* (see *b*, below), or it may still follow the old usage and stand in the gen., especially when it precedes the governing word: *Es waren ihrer mehr als hundert* There were more than a hundred of them. *Ihrer sind mehr als unser* There are more of them than there are of us. *Wie viel sind unserer?* (Schiller's *Räuber*, 2, 3). But also the appositional construction occurs here: *Je mehr wir sind, desto besser* the more of us there are, the better. *Ihr seht einen Mann wie andere mehr* (Goethe). *Es wäre zu wünschen, daß es mehr Gießhübler (name) gäbe: es gibt aber mehr andere* (Fontane's *Effi*, XXIX). *Wir sind ja nur noch so wenige beisammen!* (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 119). *Wir sind zehn. Wie viele sind wir denn?* (Storm's *Der Herr Etatsrat*, p. 216). *Jeder meiner Freunde, jeder von uns* (the gen. not now used in case of personal pronouns), or with the appositional construction: *Wenn wir jeder uns geben, wie wir sind, und tun, was unser Gewissen uns vorschreibt, wird's ja wohl das Rechte sein* (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, XXIV). The genitive and appositional constructions are sometimes combined: *Sie waren ihrer elf Geschwister, zwischen vierundzwanzig und zwei Jahren* (*Kölnische Zeitung*). *So wären wir unser zehn* (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, II, chap. 15). *Aber wie wenige sind unserer denn wir, wenn wir die ungeheure Menschheit dagegen betrachten?* (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, v). The possessive is often in colloquial language used in connection with the appositional construction: *Vor allen Dingen waren sie ihre zwanzig* (Sudermann's *Der Sturmgesele Sokrates*, 1, 9).

In general after measures the gen. of nouns is much more common in the pl. than in the sing. Goethe's expression *ein Glas des echten Weines* (instead of *echter Wein*, or *von echtem Wein*) now sounds somewhat choice, although we still quite commonly say *eine Menge kleinerer Fahrzeuge*. The gen. sing. of a noun modified by an adjective is still in choice language not altogether infrequent here, but the gen. of an unmodified noun is now obsolete in prose: *Er aß fast nichts und trank zwei Gläser schweren Weins* (Maria Janitschek's *Liebeswunder*, viii), but now always *ein Glas Wein, ein Schluck Bier*.

In a choice style the gen. still occurs after pronominal adjectives, expressing the idea of number, and used substantively, as described in 139. 3. *i. Note*, but very rarely after indefinite pronouns expressing the idea of amount, which now usually require the appositional construction, although the gen. was much used earlier in the period, and survives in a few set expressions (see 139. 3. *i. Note*): *Wo viel Weisheit ist | da ist viel gremens (Grämens)*—Eccles. i. 18. *Mit nichts Gutem* (not now *Gutes* as formerly).

If the noun dependent upon a pronominal adjective, or any measure, or weight is modified by an article or pronominal adj., it must usually stand in the partitive gen. or in the dat. after the prep. *von* or *unter*: *Die obere Hälfte des Berges, viele dieser Bücher, or von diesen Büchern, or unter diesen Büchern; ein Pfund dieser Kirschen, or von diesen Kirschen*. For an exception see 94. 3. A, last paragraph. The partitive gen. is also still much used after comparatives, superlatives, and ordinals: *die bessern meiner Schüler; die besten meiner Schüler; der erste, der zweite, der letzte der Klasse*.

Note. Observe that in case of the relative pronoun, resembling the Latin and differing from the English, the partitive construction is replaced by the appositional, when *all* are embraced in the statement: *qui omnes* = *die* (or *welche*) *alle* = all of whom. For further examples see 139. 1. d, *Notes* 1 and 2 (1).

b. The gen. is here often replaced by the prep. construction of *von* w. dat., which emphasizes more sharply the partitive idea; see last of *a*, above, and also the prep. *von*, *j* in 229. 2.

c. A partitive gen. or much more frequently a dat. after the prep. *von* is sometimes used independently of a noun or pronoun as the apparent subject, predicate, or object of the verb, to indicate that the thing or things in question should be considered as a part of a whole, or as individuals of a species. The latter construction is of French origin. It was quite common in the eighteenth century and is not infrequent in the colloquial speech of our own time, but it is now in general avoided in choice language.

As subject: *Auß Aristophanes lassen sich ihrer nachweisen* (J. Grimm) Some (monologues) can be found in Aristophanes. *Dort zeigte sich, selbst wo sie von Eichenholz war, die Belattung und Verschalung gänzlich morsch; und solcher Stellen waren überall* (Ludwig's *Zwischen Himmel und Erde*, III). *Gestern, denkt, gingen von seinen Leuten vorbei* (Goethe's *Egmont*, 1, 3) Just think, yesterday some of his men went by. *Es war von Luthers Geist und Mannheit auf ihn übergegangen* (Alexis). *Dann steht da wohl auch von* (something about) *den Ulrichs* (family) *drin* (i. e. in dem Buch)? (Halbe's *Der Strom*, p. 13). Notice that the verb is in the singular or plural according as the reference is to an indefinite quantity or an indefinite number.

As predicate: *Das sind einmal wieder von euern Streichen* (Kotzebue).

As object. The gen. is not infrequent here in poetic language: *Dem Erzeuger seht, dem großen, gießt Neoptolem des Weins* (Schiller's *Siegesfest*). *Weil ich deines Weins verschmähete* (Kleist's *Käthchen*, 1, 1). *Wie . . . | und sie nun kam, des Opyrrauchs zu streun* (Grillparzer's *Des Meeres und der Liebe Wellen*, 2). Also in prose in case of pronominal objects: *Aber es gab ihrer, und gar nicht wenige* (Raabe's *Horn von Wanza*, chap. 9) *But there were such people and*, &c. More common than the gen. is *von* + dat.: *Die Frauenzimmer säumten nicht, von ihren kleinen Haarkämmen hineinzulegen* (Goethe). *Nimm den Kellerschlüssel und hol' vom besten Wein* (id., *Götz*, 1, 3). *Seiner dafür so dankbaren Witwe schreib' ich alle Jahre noch einmal, schicke ihr auch von meinen Sachen* (T. Storm an G. Keller, 3. Jan. 1882). *Herr Omnia hatte sofort einen silbernen Becher bei der Hand und bot den Damen von der klaren Blut* (H. Seidel's *Herr Omnia*, II). *Der Pfarrer soll von unserm Wein probieren* (Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*, Act 3). *Er war in Kairo bei Engländern, den unbefrreiten Meistern des Sports, in die Schule gegangen, während sie selbst, bloß mit minderwertigen Spielern spielend, von ihrer früheren Fertigkeit eingeübt hatte* (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan*?, vi).

The partitive gen. occurs frequently throughout the period as subject or as object in connection with the negative *nicht*, where originally *nicht* was a substantive and was the real subject or object and the gen. a partitive gen. depending upon it (see 145. g. *Note* 2): *Wenn ich mit Menschen- und mit Engelzungen redete und hätte der*

Liebe nicht (1 Cor. xiii. 1, revised ed.). As the original force of the negative nicht is not now felt, the gen. is now retained as object or subject of the verb in the positive form of statement in a few expressions: Jetzt, da ich der Liebe (after the analogy of the language in 1 Cor. xiii. 1) habe, ohne die wir ein tönendes Erz und eine klingende Schelle sind — es ist seltsam, wie ganz ich jetzt ein anderer geworden bin! (Otto Ernst's *Aus verborgenen Tiefen*, p. 39). Was wir wissen, ist allein, daß unsres Wandels (after the analogy of the negative form of statement in Hier ist meines Bleibens nicht; see 145. g. Note 2) auf Erden ist (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, XII). As explained in 139. 3. i. Note, the partitive gen. is used after kein in certain set expressions as subject or object of the verb: Auch ist hier kein Besinnens (Goethe) *There is also here no time for reflection*, but also: Da gibt auch kein langes Besinnen (id.). Es war kein Haltens mehr *There was no stopping them*, but also Es war eben kein Halten mehr (P. Heyse, 8, 345). Also in questions with negative force: Wie wäre da Haltens gewesen! (Immermann, 12, 53). Also the partitive gen. Federlesens, which was originally dependent upon viel, and is still frequently so used, as in ohne viel Federlesens (Ertl's *Walpurga*) *without much ceremony, making short work of it*, is no longer vividly felt as a genitive, and can be used without viel as an accusative: Kein Hufschmied brächte je sein Eisen rund, | macht' er mit solchen Bübchen Federlesens (Hauptmann's *Die versunkene Glocke*, 4). Except in the cases mentioned above and the few expressions given in 145. g. Note 2 this gen. is now rare, aside from the words Dings and Zeug (see 83), which were originally in the gen. depending upon some word as viel, nicht, was, but are no longer felt as genitives.

Sometimes an w. dat. is used as an object: Ein langer Vokal oder eine starke Konsonantenhäufung in der Nähe einer betonten Silbe erfordert zu ihrer Aussprache eine größere Kraft als eine ganz kurze Silbe; und sie entzieht daher dem Akzent der betonten Silbe an Kraft (Minor's *Metrik*, p. 59, 1st ed.). Allmählich verloren die Sterne an ihrem Glanz (Jensen's *Heimkunft*, I).

In many of these cases the gen. or prep. phrase can still be freely used if we supply some pronoun, as etwas, einige, &c., upon which the gen. or phrase may depend.

I. Nouns formed from reflexive verbs which take a genitive object, as sich einer Sache bemächtigen, may also take a genitive object, but drop, according to 249. II. 2. G, the reflexive pronoun: durch Bemächtigung eines Stromes (Lohenstein's *Arminius*, 1, 3), corresponding to Er bemächtigte sich eines Stromes; freiwillige Begebung aller Freuden und Bequemlichkeiten dieses Lebens (Joh. Mart. Miller's *Siegwart*, 1, 30), corresponding to Er begab sich aller Freuden dieses Lebens; diese fast gänzliche Entäußerung der Leidenschaft (Goethe), corresponding to Er entäußerte sich der Leidenschaft; diese Enthaltung aller geistigen Getränke, corresponding to Er enthielt sich aller geistigen Getränke. Diese Entschädigungen . . . sind dürftige Entledigungen der Verbindlichkeit der Gesellschaft gegen sie (Fichte, 6, 33). Durch sein Hirn suchte die Erinnerung der Zeit (Spielhagen's *Fausulus*, p. 1). Es kommt bei seiner Arbeit sehr auf eine Veseißigung größerer Kürze an (Georg Edward). There is a tendency to

use a prep. construction with the verbs of this group instead of a gen., and this tendency is still more pronounced with the derivative nouns: *dieſe Enthaltung von allen geiſtigen Getränken*; *die Erinnerung an die Zeit*; *die Entwöhnung von der Geſellſchaft, vom Wein, &c.* The gen. after *Erinnerung* may be explained in another way; ſee D. a, 2nd paragraph, above. The gen. after *Entäußerung* and *Begebung* admits of the ſame double explanation, as *entäußern* is ſometimes a transitive with acc. object, as was alſo *begeben* in early N.H.G.

Nouns formed from verbs which take an acc. of the perſon and a gen. of the thing now require the gen. of the perſon and a prep. construction with the thing: *die Entſetzung des Beamten von Amt und Stelle*, *die Entleidung des Gedankens von allem Zierrat*. The gen. here is in accordance with the general rule that the gen. object with nouns correſponds to the acc. object with verbs. The employment of the prep. construction with the thing is in accordance with the tendency among derivatives from the reflexive group deſcribed above. The gen. of the thing is found here earlier in the period: *excommunicatio*, *daß heißt Entſetzung derſelben Gemeinſchaft* (Luther). Alſo ſtill in a few expreſſions: *unter der Beſchuldigung des Diebſtahls*, *die Veralung der Ehrenrechte*; alſo in a few compounds, as *Amtsentlaſſung*, *Amtsentſetzung*, *Eidesentbindung*, &c. The old gen. may ſurvive in *dieſe Verſicherung ſeiner Teilnahme*, but it may alſo be conſtrued as the attributive gen. correſponding to the acc. object after the verb, for we can ſay *Er verſicherte mir ſeine Teilnahme*, or *Er verſicherte mich ſeiner Teilnahme*.

2. Inſtead of the genitive in all the above relations *von* with a dative is now often uſed, as diſcuſſed in 229. 2, under the prep. *von*, *f*, *g*, *j*, *k*, except in certain caſes mentioned in H. c and I.

III. Apposition.

1. A noun, which explains or characterizes another noun, is placed alongſide of it in the ſame caſe and if poſſible alſo number and gender, and from its poſition is accordingly called *an appositive* (placed alongſide of): *mein Bruder, der Kaufmann*; *die Lerche, die muntere Sängerin*; *meine Vettern Rambergs* (Hartleben) *my couſins the Rambergs*; *die Maſſai, ein kriegeriſches Volk* (not able here to agree in gender or number with the noun it explains) *Oſtafrika*; *dieſe Bücher, mein Stolz und meine Freude* (agreeing neither in gender nor number); *dieſe Frau, ein Muſter von Sanftmut*; *Friedrich der Zweite*. The relations of the gen. to its governing noun are, as unfolded above, varied, but the relation of an appositive to its noun is very ſimple, as it is equivalent to an explanatory clause or ſentence, of which it is the predicate, as in *Kairo, [welche] die jetzige Hauptſtadt Agyptens [iſt], iſt zugleich auch die vornehmſte arabische Stadt unſrer Zeit*. Grammarians now demand that the appositive agree ſtrictly according to the Latin rule with its governing noun, but in accordance with its real nature as a predicate noun we ſometimes find, as noted in the following articles, the *nominative*, irreſpective of the caſe of the governing noun. This tendency to diſregard conventional rules

and place the appositive in the nom. in accordance with its real nature is especially marked in dialect: Gestern hab ich de (den) Hannes gesehen, en (ein) lieber (lieber) Kerl (= Es ist ein lieber Kerl).

Appositives form two groups:

A. The appositive follows the noun or pronoun which it explains in the form of a noun or an adj. used as a noun: Dido, die Gründerin Karthago's, soll um das Jahr 814 v. Ch. gelebt haben. Die Athener (Athenians) verurteilten den Sokrates, einen der berühmtesten Weisen Griechenlands (Greece). Friedrich den Großen hat teils sein Genie, teils die Eifersüchteleien seiner Gegner gerettet. O, ich Unglücklicher!

If the appositive is not modified by an article or adjective, it is often uninflected: Das Werk des berühmten und hochgestellten Verfassers, Mitglied (or, perhaps, more commonly Mitglieds) der meisten gelehrten Gesellschaften. If the appositive is in the wk. declension it inclines here more readily to inflection: Die Expedition des Gouverneurs von Deutsch-Ostafrika, Obersten v. Schele. If, however, the noun is an adjective-substantive or is modified by an adjective, it *must* be declined: von Baron von W., Gesandtem des deutschen Reichs, or deutschem Gesandten.

a. A noun which is in apposition with a whole sentence stands in the nom.: Er will aufbrechen, ein Entschluß, der ihm sehr schwer geworden ist.

b. When the appositive stands in direct address it is in the nom.: Du möchte ich diese Lieder weihen, geliebtes deutsches Vaterland!

c. Under the influence of lively or excited feeling an appositive in the nom. may often precede the pronoun which it explains or characterizes, although the pronoun may be in some other case: Der armselige Ehekrüppel (feeble old married man), den soll ein frisches Mädchen heiraten!

d. Remarks and explanations that are made in passing or parenthetically, and do not have as vital a connection with the word explained as a regular appositive, are usually placed in the nom.: Das Grab war gut unterhalten, mit Kieferna und Monatsrosen, die Lieblingsblumen der Verstorbenen. In dem weitläufigen Hofe, zu des Prinzen Zeit ein großer Garten, sind mehrere Fabriken.

e. An appositive which refers collectively or distributively to two or more nouns, or to a noun in the plural, usually stands in the nom.: Ich war mit weißen, weitfaltigen Beinkleidern und langem Quasian, beides aus dem leichtesten Zeuge, bekleidet (Junker). Sie sahen zwei junge Herren mit hohen Hüten daherkommen, jeder mit einer hübschen, jungen Dame am Arme (G. Keller). Da war auch der Thronerbe mit drei seiner Vettern, sämtlich allerliebste Bürschlein von 7-9 Jahren.

f. Especially frequent is the use of *wie* and *als* (see 233. C) with appositives, and it requires care to distinguish here the true appositive relation from other constructions which are associated with *wie* and *als*: Bei manchen Tieren, wie dem Biber, der Spinne, zeigt sich ein hervorragender Kunstsin, but in einem Augenblicke *wie* der gegenwärtige [ist]. In the first example *wie* connects an appositive with the noun it explains, and hence both words are in the same case. In the second example *wie* is a subordinate conjunction and introduces a clause, and hence the following word is in the nom., as it is the subject of the clause.

Thus also care must be exercised to distinguish between the case where *als* joins to a noun another noun which explains it, and the case where *als* introduces a noun as the predicate complement of a verb which lies concealed in the form of some preceding noun: Ich verrate es nur dir *als* meinem besten Freunde, but Der Rektor sprach über das Wirken Sybels *als* akademischer Lehrer (= Sybel wirkte *als* akademischer Lehrer). In the first sentence *als* connects two words in the same case, of which the second is a true appositive to the first. In the second sentence the noun following *als* is a predicate appositive after the verb, which lies concealed in the form of the noun

Birken. The verb that is concealed in the preceding noun is not always literally contained in the stem of the noun, but it is always naturally suggested by the idea that it is implied in the stem: *Man hatte ihm die Stelle als Legationserat (= er sollte Legationserat werden) angeboten.*

This distinction is not by any means always followed. At this point considerable confusion prevails, some mechanically conforming the noun after *als* in case to the preceding noun, some distinguishing between the constructions as above described.

g. If the appositive is a title of a work, the name of something, or a technical phrase, it usually remains in the nom., whatever be the case of the noun it explains: *Wir lesen einen Auftritt aus „Nathan der Weise.“* We are reading a scene out of (Lessing's) "Nathan the Wise." *Wir lesen einen Teil des Gedichtes „Die Glocke.“* Und gerade hier wurde immer die Fahrt schon verlangt, samt wegen der Nähe des Bahnhofes „Zoologischer Garten." *Wir planten mit meinem, gegenwärtig im Bankhause Schmitt & Söhne liegenden Vermögen ein Gut zu kaufen. Von seiner Verwendung im Helbengebüsch hat er (der Hexameter) den Namen „heroischer Vers.“*

h. A noun in apposition with a preceding possessive adjective is usually in the gen. in accordance with the natural conception that the idea of possession lies in the gen.: *Du wirst doch wenigstens meine, deines Freundes Hilfe annehmen!* In prose, as in the preceding sentence, the appositive stands between the possessive and the noun that it modifies, but in poetry the appositive may follow the noun, as in the following sentence from Schiller's *Piccolomini*, where Thekla speaks of herself and her father, the great Wallenstein: *Ich hatte keine Wünsche, kannte mich | als seine Tochter nur, des Mächtigen.*

The appositive usually follows the noun when introduced by *als*: *Sie (i. e. die Griechen) sind unsere geistigen Ureltern. Ihre Würde als solcher ist anerkannt* (Hermann Grimm in *Deutsche Rundschau*, Mai 1896, p. 244). After *als* the appositive is more commonly in the nom. construed as predicate as in *f*, above: *Sein Beruf als Richter (= der Beruf, den er als Richter hat) verpflichtete ihn zur strengsten Unparteilichkeit. Meine Pflichten als König von Preußen und als deutscher Fürst gestatten mir nicht, den Entwurf als die Grundlage einer neuen Bundesverfassung anzunehmen* (Wilhelm I. in Frankfurt).

i. An exact date, which follows a more general one, usually stands in the acc. in accordance with the general rule for exact time (see 223. II. 1), although the noun it explains may be in some other case: *Die Wahl fand Samstag or am Samstag den 28. April statt.* Here *den 28. April* is not a real appositive to *am Samstag*, but both expressions are adverbial modifiers of the same verb, and take the case required by their respective relations to the governing verb, *Samstag* dat. after the prep. *an*, *den 28. April* acc. of time.

j. Learned men often allow the appositive to stand in the nom. in titles of their books, and hence cannot justly complain that people generally follow this practice in the titles they use in addressing letters to them: *Geschichte der holländischen Baukunst*, v. Dr. G. Galland, Privatdozent (instead of the more correct *Privatdozenten*); *An Herrn N., ordentlicher Professor* (address on a letter).

k. To complete the confusion that is so prevalent with respect to the proper case of the appositive noun the dat. is used by various authors uniformly without regard to the case of the preceding noun. *Voll Erinnerungen an das poetische Sevilla, meiner liebsten Stadt in Spanien* (Emperor Maximilian of Mexico, *Aus meinem Leben*, 187).

l. The weak noun is in a number of relations uninflected when it has no article before it, as in 94. I. *a, b, c, d, e*, but it must as an appositive be inflected if the thought depends upon a clear designation of the case relation: *Er besang den Kaiser als Helden* (not *Held*, as the form would be construed as a nom. agreeing with the subject).

B. The appositive may stand before the noun it explains, especially when it is a title or some other explanation of a proper noun, and then enters into such close relations to the modified noun that they both are felt as one word, and hence one case ending for both words is often sufficient (for full rules for inflection see 92 and 94. 1. *d*): *der König Karl, die Werke des Professor(s) Wagner, Kaiser Wilhelms lange Regierung, das Erzherzogtum Österreich, des Erzherzogtums Österreich, der Geschichtsschreiber Johannes Müller, die Senfe des erbarmungslosen Schnitters Tod, der Genuese (Genoese) Columbus*. Other examples are given in 94. 1. *d*.

a. The gender of the appositive usually determines the gender of the article or other pronominal adjective that must sometimes stand before such closely united words, but if the appositive be *Fräulein* the article is often fem., following the natural gender of the word that is explained rather than the grammatical gender of *Fräulein*: *die Hauptstadt Berlin, Ihre* (or perhaps more commonly *Ihr*) *Fräulein Schwester* your unmarried sister, *die* (or more commonly *das*) *Fräulein Ehrhard*.

b. If the appositive has several modifiers it follows the noun it explains: *Berlin, die Hauptstadt des deutschen Reiches Berlin*, the capital of the German Empire.

2. Quite different from the above is the employment of the appositional construction, instead of the gen. of earlier periods. This important construction is explained in II. 1. H. *a*, above, and 94. 3. A.

IV. A Prepositional Phrase as Modifier of a Noun.

A noun or pronoun may be modified by a prepositional phrase, which usually follows it. The following groups occur:

1. Nouns denoting an *action*, and sometimes those denoting an *actor*, can by virtue of their verbal nature be modified by a prep. phrase, which is always identical in construction with the phrase that modifies the verb of the same origin: *Die Trauer um den Vater, die Freude über den Sieg* (for we say *Man trauert um den Vater* and *Man freut sich über den Sieg*). *Ein Streiter für Wahrheit und Recht*.

a. Compound nouns denoting an action the first element of which has the relation of an object to the second element cannot thus be modified by a prep. phrase, as in the following incorrect expressions: *Der Hammerwurf in den Rhein, die Bibelübersetzung ins Deutsche*. In such cases the objection may be removed by breaking up the compound into two words, the first element of the compound becoming an objective genitive: *Der Wurf des Hammers in den Rhein, die Übersetzung der Bibel ins Deutsche*.

2. All nouns, including the above, can be freely modified by prep. phrases in all those cases where, in the exact sense, the prep. phrase is an adverbial modifier of some word of verbal nature understood: *der Schreiber beim Rechtsanwalt* [angestellt employed] the copyist at the lawyer's. *Ein Sperling in der Hand* [festgehalten] ist besser als eine Taube auf dem Dache [sitzend].

a. Here belongs the common prepositional construction with *zu* which expresses the adverbial ideas of a goal, end, result, purpose, and thus differs from the appositive construction with *zu* given in II. 1. G. *b*, above, in meaning, and, moreover, distinguishes itself by its form, as it usually requires the definite article before the dependent word: *der Weg zur Kirche, zur Armut, ein Ofen zum Brotbacken, ein Zimmer zum Musizieren, ein Raum zum Holzsplaten*. There is a strong tendency here to place *um* before the *zu* of the infinitive to emphasize the idea of purpose or result, a usage quite common in adverbial constructions: *ein Raum um Holz zu splaten*. Ich hatte mir seinen Messias so zu eigen gemacht, daß ich ihm bei meinen öfteren Besuchen, um Siegelabdrücke für meine Wappensammlung zu holen, große Stellen davon vortragen konnte (Goethe). Es darf nicht sein, solange diese Heuchler | noch Öfen haben, um sich Brot zu backen (Hebbel's *Nibelungen*, II, iv, 2). Often in colloquial language with a prepositional construction as in the English expression *a stove to cook with*: Da ist das heilige Granatholz, um das Lamm daran zu braten, da sind die Gewürzlein, um den heiligen Süßbrei damit zu bereiten (Sudermann's *Johannes*, I, 4). The Germanic scholar Matthias Lexer uses this prepositional construction in his *Mittelhochdeutsches Taschenwörterbuch* in explaining the M.H.G. word *kulter*: gefütterte Steppdecke über das Bett, um darauf oder darunter zu liegen. This construction is usually opposed by grammarians. It has, however, a great advantage over the older construction in that it can drop the article and expand itself into an infinitive clause with various objective and adverbial modifiers, as in the last three examples, and thus give terse expression to the idea of purpose. To secure this freedom of movement some grammarians recommend the use of an infinitive clause here with simple *zu*, and then construe it as an appositive to the substantive, as described in II. 1. G. *b*, above. Thus a prominent German grammarian would remove the *um* from the following sentence: Das Übrige war der Verebnsamkeit des Botschafters vorbehalten, dem die Statthalterin einen Wink gab, eine so schöne Gelegenheit nicht von der Hand zu schlagen, um sich in der Gunst seines Herrn festzusetzen (Schiller). The removal of *um* destroys the distinct idea of purpose which the author sought to convey. The idea of purpose lay originally also in *zu*, and this idea is still quite common in connection with substantives, as described in 229. 2 under *zu* II. 1. *f*, but this idea is no longer vividly felt in connection with the infinitive, as the infinitive with *zu* is now also used as a subject, a direct object, and an appositive, and it therefore no longer conveys the distinct idea of a prepositional object indicating the direction of the activity or the idea of purpose, end, result. Hence the natural feeling of the people and even authors of good repute has suggested here the use of *um*, which vividly expresses the idea of purpose.

V. An Infinitive as Modifier of a Noun.

A noun may be modified by an infin. with *zu*: Das Bestreben sich auszubilden ist lobenswert. Ich habe heute rechte Lust zu studieren I feel like studying to-day.

VI. An Adverb as Modifier of a Noun.

An adverb may modify a noun in the same way as a phrase (see IV. 2, above) may do: Der Mensch da, das Buch da, der Felsen dort.

VII. A Clause as Modifier of a Noun.

A clause may modify a noun: die Hoffnung, daß wir ihm helfen werden, verleiht ihm Mut. Die Tat, welche der Verzeihung bedarf, ist nicht gut.

A Noun and its Modifier replaced by a Compound Noun.

256. All the above kinds of adj. modifiers, except the last two, can sometimes be replaced by terser forms of expression by converting them into the modifying component of a compound noun: (1) ein leichter Sinn = Leichtsin, (2) ein Tropfen Wassers = ein Wassertropfen, (3) dieser Mann, ein Ritter = dieser Rittersmann, (4) ein Aufenthalt für den Sommer = ein Sommeraufenthalt, (5) die Begierde zu herrschen = die Herrschbegierde.

Objective Modifiers.

Accusative Object.

257. 1. All transitive verbs require, to complete their meaning, an object which, to be distinguished from other words, stands in the acc. This acc. represents a thing either as affected by an action or as the result of it: Der Knabe schlägt den Hund (thing affected). Er hat einen Brief (result of the action) geschrieben.

In changing such a sentence from the active to the passive, the acc. becomes nom. and the nom. is put into the dat. after the prep. von: Der Hund wird von dem Knaben geschlagen The dog is being beaten by the boy. The nom. subject of a passive verb denotes the same thing as the acc. object of a trans. verb, but from a different point of view. The acc. denotes the person or thing toward which another person or thing is directing an activity, and thus emphasizes the idea of an active agent at work. The nom. subject of a passive verb represents an object as receiving an activity and thus emphasizes the idea of a passive recipient.

a. Many transitives which usually require an object are used without one when the activity they express is represented only in a general way without reference to an effect upon a particular object: Der Mensch denkt, Gott lenkt Man proposes, God disposes. Er gibt gerne He likes to give.

b. A number of verbs are trans. or intrans. according to the idea to be conveyed—trans. when the subject is represented as acting on an object, intrans. when the subject is represented as moving toward a certain goal or as passing over, of its own initiative, into the state caused by the action of the verb: Das Pferd zieht (trans.) den Wagen, but we also say intransitively Er ist nach Berlin gezogen He has moved to Berlin. Ich habe das Ei gebrochen, but we also say of the egg when it seems to break of itself without our intending or wishing it Das Ei ist gebrochen The egg broke. Thus also Die Saite ist gerissen The violin string broke. Here the German by means of the intrans. auxiliary sein shows more distinctly than the English that these verbs are considered intrans.

c. In transposing a sentence into the passive voice only the object of the principal verb of the active construction should in the passive be put into the nom., never properly the object of a dependent infinitive. However, in actual usage the object of an

infinitive depending upon anfangen, beginnen, suchen, versuchen, vergönnen, wünschen, often appears in the nom. in the passive: Man sucht einen Hühnerhund zu kaufen becomes Ein Hühnerhund wird zu kaufen gesucht. Die verriegelte Tür wurde kräftig zu öffnen versucht (H. Böhlau's *Adam und Eva*, chap. 1). Oskar Schades *Altdeutsches Wörterbuch* wird zu kaufen gesucht (*Zeitschrift für deutsche Philologie*, 1903, Heft 3, p. 2 of the wrapper). Da erschien nun vor kurzer Zeit eine umfangreiche Arbeit eines Anglisten, des Professors Moritz Trautmann in Bonn, in der keine geringere Behauptung aufgestellt und zu beweisen gesucht wird, als daß . . . das Hildebrandslied überhaupt gar nicht der deutschen Literatur angehöre, sondern altenglischen Ursprungs sei (H. Jantzen in *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, Jahrgang 1903, No. 209). A more correct passive form would be: Es wird gesucht, einen Hühnerhund zu kaufen.

d. The object is often expressed in German when it is omitted in English; see 251. II. A. d.

e. In English the accusative is used in some groups of ideas where prepositional constructions are more commonly employed in German. It is usual to explain such differences by saying that the idiomatic structure of the two languages is different. While matters of idiom are often very subtle, some of these things can be explained. For instance, the German has in a number of cases preserved the old idea of instrument better than English. Originally there was a special case form for this idea. Later the dative assumed besides its own functions also those of the instrumental. Still later prepositional constructions replaced the simple dat. Thus to-day we say in English: *The dog is wagging his tail, He shook his head, He is winking his eyes, He threw stones at him*, while the German says: Der Hund wedelt mit dem Schwanz, Er schüttelte mit dem Kopfe, Er winkt mit den Augen, Er warf ihn (or nach ihm) mit Steinen. While the accusative is also in German sometimes used here, the native German in speaking English often provokes a smile from English-speaking people by a too liberal use of the prepositional construction here.

2. *Intransitives used transitively with objects.* The following classes of intransitives often take an object in the acc.

A. *A cognate accusative*, that is, an object of a meaning cognate or similar to that of the verb, may repeat and also explain more fully the idea expressed by the verb: Er schlief den Schlaf des Gerechten. Er starb den Tod fürs Vaterland. Er lebt ein elendes Leben. Die Sache geht ihren ruhigen Gang. Sie singt ein Lied. Er spielt Karten. This construction has become very productive, so that now an acc. can be quite freely added to an intransitive to complete its meaning: Im Kellergechoß kam hinten aus der Gefindestube die Köchin im buntgestreiften Wollenrock und berichtete von unten herauf, daß die Mamsell „nur ein Gewerbe ausgegangen“ (Storm's *Von heut und ehemals*, III, p. 173) *had only gone out on an errand*. Er läuft Schlittschub, Epigruten *He is skating, is running the gauntlet*. Er fährt Eisenbahn, Pferdebahn, Omnibus, Kahn, Rad, Nichtraucher (in the car for ladies). Ich verstehe jetzt, warum wir dritte (also gen.; see 223. III. a) Klasse fahren mußten (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 43). Ich fahre nur Arbeiterzug

(Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, 2). Er reitet Galopp, Schritt, Trab, Karriere (post haste), Post (post haste), Patrouille, gestreckten Galopp (at full speed). Ein ausgezeichnete Reiter, der zum Leid meiner Mutter Rennen ritt (Oempteda's *Frieden*, I). Er raucht Pfeife. Er schläft Mittagsstunde. Dann redeten wir Bismarck, Kulturkampf, soziale Frage und was sonst dazu gehört, um einen Abschiedsabend unter guten Freunden hinzubringen, ohne zu sehr zu merken, wie die Zeit läuft (Raabe's *Pfitzer's Mühle*, xx). Wenn ich nur den Verdacht los würde, daß Sie hier Pose stehen (Sudermann's *Die Heimat*, 2, 9). Ich soll nun für drei Bagen Boten gehen (go on an errand) (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 3), or Ich will euch [als] Bote laufen (Freitag). Sie sollen mir Rede [earlier in the period zur Rede] stehen (id., *Soll.*, I. 118). Bei Tische stand Tante Amalie ganz richtig Rede und Antwort, wenn man eine Frage an sie richtete (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan?*, vi). Über das, was die Jungmannschaft von St. Moritz in Gemeindeangelegenheiten getan, stehen wir gerne Rechenschaft (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, xv). Gefahr laufen to run the risk, but earlier in the period with or without in: Der Wig läuft schon bei seinem Ursprunge in Gefahr zu wiggeln (Goethe). Man mußte also diese Gefahr laufen (Schiller). Lauf Sturm wider die Ringmauer (id., *Räuber*, 5, 1). Auf Posten stehen, now also dieses Gewehr hier diese Nacht bei dieser Hundekälte zu tragen und Posten zu stehen vor dem alten Schlosse (Adalbert Meinhardt's *Allerleirauh*, Jung sein, p. 31). Von elf bis eins stand Vogt zum letzten Male an diesem Wachttag Posten (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan?*, iv). As can be seen from a number of these examples, this favorite construction is replacing various older ones. In case of an unmodified weak noun the acc. ending is not always expressed as in the sentence from Hauptmann, but in accordance with usage elsewhere the noun may remain uninflected: Und wenn der Graf bei ihnen hier Herr spielen wolle — sie wollten es ihm schon verleißen (Spielhagen's *Sturmflut*, vi, 15), but Er will den großen Herrn spielen.

a. Here also belongs the acc. after verbs of motion which denotes the ground over which the motion passes: Er geht ruhig seinen Weg He goes quietly on his way. Der Wein läuft die Kühle hinunter. Er kommt die Treppe herauf. See also 260. 2. A. a.

b. Instead of a cognate acc. of a noun, the acc. neut. of a pronominal adjective or pronoun, such as eins, es, etwas, is much used: Er hat wieder eins gelogen He has lied again. Sing eins, daß die Zeit vergeht! Laß uns eins plaudern Let us have a little chat. Ich wollte, du lachtest eins mit I wish you would join us in laughing. Der junge Bursche schob den Hut aus der Stirn, piffte sich eins und schritt weiter (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan?*, I). Die Eifersucht über Spanien gewann es (won the victory) über diese politische Sympathie. Er hat mir oft etwas vorgesungen. The same construction is often found in English, as in to "walk it," "foot it."

c. The cognate acc. construction cannot usually be transferred to the passive, but like other intrans. constructions can form the impersonal passive (219. 5. B), where the cognate acc. remains acc. as in the active: Es wurde Karten (acc. pl.) gespielt There was playing at cards going on. The use of the acc. instead of the nom. here indicates that the cognate acc. is not to be considered an object in the strict sense, but rather as an adverbial element. In some cases, however, the cognate acc. approaches the usual force of the acc., and hence becomes nom. in the passive: Er singt ein Lied becomes in the passive Ein Lied wird von ihm gesungen.

B. Intransitives sometimes take on the trans. idea of *causing, producing, showing* that which results from or accompanies their action: Tränen weinen, Zorn bliden, Liebe lächeln, Wut schnauben to breathe rage, that is, to show rage in breathing. Er geht sich (dat.) Blasen unter die Füße He walks until blisters form on the soles of his feet. Er hat sich ein Loch in den Kopf gefallen.

3. Some adjectives take an accusative object to complete their meaning; see 260. 3.

Dative Object.

258. The connection of the dative with a verb or adjective is of every degree of closeness, from constituting their necessary complement to forming an almost or entirely independent element which expresses an emotional interest in the statement of fact as a whole: Das Kind ähnelt der Mutter The child resembles the mother. Ich lobe mir mein Dörfchen hier I for my part have always a word of praise for our village. In the first sentence the dat. is necessary to complete the thought contained in the verb, while in the second it is a lively rhetorical means to show the interest of the speaker in the statement, but it qualifies the thought as a whole rather than the verb alone.

1. Some intransitives take a dat. object to complete their meaning: Er dankte mir nicht He did not thank me. This dat. object expresses a less direct relation to the verb than the acc. object, as it only points out the *person* in some way interested or involved in the action, especially the person with reference to whose inner or material interests something is done, and does not represent him as the direct recipient of the action of the verb in a literal exterior sense as with the acc. after such verbs as schlagen to *strike*. Thus the dative places in the foreground the idea of a person or a thing with personal attributes which is interested or involved in the action, while the accusative emphasizes the idea of the immediate, direct object of the activity, whether it be a person or a thing, and implies that the object is thoroughly affected, or that the action ends in the attainment of a definite goal or end. This difference in meaning between the two constructions appears again in the passive, for in changing such active constructions into the passive the acc. becomes nom., but the dat. remains a *dative*, instead of becoming nom., and the sentence is thus without a subject, or in order to conform to the now prevailing grammatical pattern is introduced by the vague, indefinite es, which serves as a formal subject (219. 5. B. a): Ich wurde geschlagen, but Mir wurde, or Es wurde mir von ihm nicht gedankt I was not thanked by him. However, not all intransitives which take a dat. object can form this passive. This construction is limited to such verbs as represent an *activity* as proceeding from a *person*. Thus Er gefällt mir He *pleases me* cannot be transferred to the passive, as the verb gefällt indicates a *quality* of the person denoted by the subject and not an *activity* which proceeds from him. The main characteristic of this impersonal passive is that it emphasizes an *activity*, and hence the

commonest form of the construction has no subject at all, or at least no definite subject, nor any reference to an agent, placing the sole stress upon the activity: *Mir wurde hart begegnet*, or *Es wurde mir hart begegnet* They treated me harshly. It is often desirable, however, to represent some person or thing as acted upon, even with these verbs which govern the dat., and hence under French and English influence this impersonal passive is often, even in good authors, though severely condemned by grammarians, replaced by the personal passive: *Sei (du understood) dafür herzlich gedankt*, instead of *Dir sei dafür herzlich gedankt*. This contested construction is especially common in the form of an appositional participle, where the noun or pronoun which is limited by the participle is the real subject of the verbal idea in the participle: *Er ging hinab, gefolgt von Peters (Spielhagen's Herrin, p. 194)*. The passive is universal in the expression *Ich fühle mich geschmeichelt*, which can be more easily defended, as *schmeicheln* earlier in the period sometimes took an acc. in the active.

There is another dative of quite a different origin and force which is used with both transitives and intransitives. It gives expression to the ideas of a goal, place, separation, point of departure, source. For examples see B, below.

The dative object is found after the following groups of intransitives, some of which pass for transitives in English:

A. Those which signify:

a. Inclination or aversion, a pleasing or displeasing, a serving or resisting: *begehnen* to please, suit, afford comfort to, *mißbegehnen* (opposite of *begehnen*), *belieben* (used in a number of set expressions; see also 259. 8) and *gelieben* (earlier in the period; see 2 Peter ii. 15) to please, danken to thank, dienen to serve, dominieren (dat., with more force über with acc.; with the acc. in the second meaning) to domineer over, command (i.e. overlook, as from a superior position), drohen to threaten, essen (early N.H.G. and biblical; see Rom. xiv. 6) to eat unto, fluchen (but *verfluchen* with acc.) to curse, frönen (or *fronen*) to be a slave to (passion, &c.), be addicted to, truckle to, indulge (passions, &c.), gefallen to please, mißfallen to displease, gnaden to have mercy upon, gratulieren to congratulate, grollen to bear ill-will against, hofieren to pay court to, huldigen to pay homage to, swear allegiance to, juchzen to hail with shouts of joy, kondolieren to condole with, konvenieren to suit, lächeln to smile upon (lit. as in *Lächle deinen Gästen* — Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, 4, 2 — or fig. *Das Glück lächelt mir*), lachen to smile upon (lit. and especially fig., as in *Das Glück lacht ihm*), favor (as in *Die Gelegenheit lacht ihm*), lauschen to listen to, leben to live entirely given up to or devoted to, live up to, leuchten to light the way for (some one), munden to taste well to, pochen (rare) to defy, schmecken to taste (well, &c.) to, schmeicheln and flattieren (both occasionally with acc. earlier in the period) to flatter, schwören to swear (the oath of allegiance) to, trogen to defy, tun to do unto, treat, widern to be repugnant to, willfahren to gratify, indulge, grant, zürnen to be angry at (somebody), &c.: Nehmen Sie, was Ihnen beliebt Take your choice. Was beliebt Ihnen? What's your pleasure? What can I do for you? Wie es Ihnen beliebt as you like. Nur die Vorstellung der Möglichkeit, es könnte ihr jemand über den Kopf wachsen, ihr dominieren . . . bringt sie außer sich (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 238), but auf einer den Hafen dominierenden Höhe (Nat.-Z. 18, 413). Und wer die Ruhe stört, Gott mög' ihm gnaden (P. Heyse, 3, 149). Wollte die Weisheit dem Herrgott gefallen, | dann gnad' er dir, Herrin, und gnad' uns allen (Sudermann's *Die drei Reiherfedern*, 3, 4). Bis dahin lebte er

seinen einsamen Studien, seinen Schriften und der Gesellschaft. Diesem allem (up to all this) hatte Nießen seitdem gelebt (Fontane's *Stechlin*, chap. xii). Bitte, leuchten Sie dem Herrn (id., *Cécile*, chap. xxi). Dann, wie mit Zauberinnen man verfährt, so wollten sie ihr tun (Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, 2, 3). O, muß meine Seele immer | von dieser Speise essen, die ihr widert! (H. von Hofmannsthal's *Elektra*, p. 20). Man hat ihm in diesem Punkte gewillfahret. Sie sah seine bittenden Augen auf sich gerichtet und willfahret seinem Wunsche (Oempteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, XV).

Note. It must be remembered that the dat. object is found only when it is desired to indicate the person interested or involved in the action, or sometimes to indicate a thing which by way of personification is conceived as having interests like any person. When an interested person is not involved in the action, an acc. or prephrase may sometimes be used to complete the meaning of the verb, even after verbs which usually govern the dat.: Der Feind droht der Stadt mit einer Belagerung, but Die Verhandlungen mit Frankreich zogen sich lange hin, drohten mehrmals sogar den gänzlichen Abbruch. Er antwortete (see *e*) mir *He answered me*, but Er antwortete keine Silbe *He answered not a syllable* and Er antwortete auf meine Frage *He answered my question*. This is in general true of all verbs which govern the dat., and hence applies to the verbs in *b, c, d, e, B, C, D*, below.

In order to denote that the activity of the verb is directed toward some thing he is placed before several of these verbs, which then govern the acc.: Er antwortete (see *e*) mir und Unsem Rufen (personified) antwortete niemand (Raabe's *Finkenrode*, xii), but Er beantwortete den Brief. Er folgte (see *d*) mir, seinen Rufen (personified), but Er befolgte meinen Rat *He followed (heeded) my advice*. The prefix *be* is also used before a few of these verbs to denote that an activity is directed against a person. In this case the derivative verb with *be* governs the acc., and usually has a different shade of meaning from the simple verb, which governs the dat.: einem dienen *to serve, be of use to one*, einen bedienen *to wait upon* (at the table, &c.). In the same way a shade of meaning arises between these simple verbs, which govern the dat., and their derivatives with other prefixes which govern the acc.: einem folgen *to follow one*, einen verfolgen *to pursue, persecute one*; einem schmeicheln *to flatter one*, einen umschmeicheln *to caress*; nächtl. Gesange lauschen *to listen to nightly music*, etwas (acc.) erlauschen *to get or learn by listening*. In all these cases, as also elsewhere, the dat. brings to the front the idea of a person or a thing with personal attributes that is in one way or another interested or involved in the action, while the acc. emphasizes the idea of the *immediate* object of the activity, and implies that the object is thoroughly affected, or (as in the last example) that the action results in the attainment of a definite goal or end.

The action may be directed not only toward an object, but also for or against the interests of some one. In this case the acc. of the thing expresses the first idea, and the dat. (see 3, below) of a noun or pronoun the second: Er beschädigt mir den Baum.

b. Benefit or injury, fullness or lack: bekommen to agree with, bescheren to give a present to, fehlen to be lacking to, frommen to avail, benefit, profit, fruchten to avail, gebrechen to be lacking to, gedißen to succeed, gelten to be of value to, be intended for, genügen to suffice, satisfy, geschehen or passieren to happen to, serve (see ex.), glücken, geraten, gelingen to succeed, mißglücken, mißraten, mißlingen, helfen (259. 17) to help, mangeln to be lacking to, nützen or nügen (earlier in the period also with acc.; in the meaning to *make use of*, both are trans. with acc., either in the simple form or more commonly in the form *benutzen* or *benügen*) to be useful to, be of service to, aid, remedieren to remedy, schaden to injure, sefundieren (also trans. with acc.) to second, sein to aid, einem stimmen (Swiss for für einen stimmen) to vote for, streuen to make a bed for (cattle), tangen to be good for, be useful to, be adapted to, vergehen (see 259. 34), verzeihen (259. 34), zinsen to pay tribute to: Die Speise bekommt mir nicht. Unten an dem Christbaum bescherete ich meinen Leuten: den beiden Mägden, dem Kutscher, dem Ferstläufer, dem Jägerburschen (Spielhagen's *Selbstge-*

recht, p. 158). Was fehlt Ihnen? What is the matter with you? Alle Mühe fruchtet Ihnen nichts. Es gebricht dem Armen am Gelde. Alles gedeiht ihm. Das gilt mir gleich It is all the same to me. Der Spott galt mir, the ridicule was intended for me. Es geschieht dir recht It serves you right. Es nützt dem Lügner nichts. Was würde es Ihnen nützen? Es nützt seiner Verdauung (H. von Hofmannsthal's *Elektra*, p. 14). Der kann mir nicht schaden. Was ist Ihnen? What ails you? Er streut dem Vieh. The verb may be understood or may be unnecessary: Drum rett' erst ihn, zum zweiten dieses Kind, | die dritte Fahrt der Schwester und der Mutter (Grillparzer's *Ein treuer Diener*, 4).

c. *Fitness, a belonging to, believing, trusting, obeying, listening*: eignen to belong to, be characteristic of, folgen to follow, obey, gebühren to be due to, belong to, be becoming to, gehören to belong to, gehorchen, or now less commonly gehorſamen, in colloquial language also parieren, to obey, glauben (see 259. 15), horchen (259. 18), hören (now no longer common, usually auf einen, etwas hören) to mind, pay attention to, answer to (a name), lassen to become, look pretty on, liegen to be adapted to, passen to fit, suit, be agreeable to, sein (poet.) to be accorded to (see ex.), ſigen to fit, stehen to become, look well on, trauen to trust, mißtrauen to distrust, vertrauen to confide in, werden (in choice language) to come into one's possession, fall to one's lot, ziemen to besit: Das Haus eignet mir. Nur der Körper eignet jenen Mächten, die das dunkle Schicksal flechten. Den Löwen eignet es, einsam zu lagern. Und doch bin ich der einzige, dem er (der Pudel) hört (Lessing's *Minna*, I, 8). Selbst der Zorn läßt ihr schön. Gehen wir schließlich zu dem unseres Wissens ersten Versuch der auf belletristischem Gebiet beliebten Frau Ise Grapan-Akunian über, so will mich bedünken, daß auch dieser talentvollen Dame das dramatische Genre nicht liegt (Stöckhardt in *Die schöne Literatur, Beilage zum Literarischen Zentralblatt*, Nr. 24, 3. Jahrg.). Der Rache sei ihr Recht, dem Recht sei Rache! (Grillparzer's *Ein treuer Diener*, 4). Dieser Rock ſigt Ihnen wie angegossen This coat fits you to perfection. Ehre ward euch und Sieg (Schiller). Ein grandioſerer Anblick ist mir nie geworden (Liliencron's *Kriegsnovellen*, Anno 1870). Dergleichen ziemt mir nicht.

Earlier in the period sein was used with a dative of possession: Wem ist das Haus da drüben? (Goethe's *Stella*, I). Streng gemessen ist mein Auftrag, | jede Wohnung zu durchsuchen, | wem sie sei, wem sie gehöre (Grillparzer's *Die Ahnfrau*, 2). This construction is still common in popular speech: Das Buch ist mir.

d. *Approach, restraining, yielding, similarity, dissimilarity*: ähneln, or less commonly ähnen, to bear some resemblance to, ahnden (earlier in the period) or ahnen (M.H.G. anen, lit. to come upon; now with non-personal subject when the dat. is employed, earlier in the period sometimes also when the acc. was used; also with a personal subject and an acc. object) to have a presentiment of, begnügen (earlier in the period not infrequently with the acc., and still occasionally so) to meet, treat, ſich beugen (with simple dat. or vor with dat.) to bow to, submit to, erliegen to succumb to, erscheinen to appear to, folgen to follow, ſich einem or more commonly zu einem geſellen to join (go to) some one, gleichen to resemble, be like, kommen to come to (in a figurative sense), attack, treat, speak to, (ſich) nähern or ſich nähern to approach, parieren to parry one's thrust, meet one's arguments, ſteuern to check, träumen (see also 219. 4. A. b) to appear to in a dream, dream of, verfallen to meet with (a sad fate, &c.), become a prey to, wehren to hinder, restrain, check, weichen to yield to: Der Sohn ähnelte oft dem Vater. Und ähn' ich so dem Tiere mehr — | wohlan! so häut' ich mich vielleicht einmal, | und es entpuppt, wie's ja zuweilen schon | geſchehen ist, ſich aus dem Tier der Heilige (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 2, 6). Es ahnt (formerly also ahndet) mir (formerly also mich) nichts Gutes. Ich ahnte nichts davon. Ich bin ihm auf der Straße begegnet. Da begegneten wir Wunderlich, den Affessor, auf der Treppe (Bismarck to his wife, Sept. 26, 1850). Er begegnete auf der Straße die Lehrer vom Gymnasium (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, xxii). Nicht deine Jahre zählte das Volk, nur deine Taten . . . Greise beugten ſich willig deiner Jugend (Sudermann's *Teja*,

3). Weuge dich vor dem Alter! Sich diesen zu gefallen, fiel Dyrk aber nicht ein (Fontane's *Quitt*, chap. iii). Er gleicht seinem Vater, wie ein Ei dem anderen. Diese Einsicht kommt Ihnen spät. Kommen Ihnen da keine Gedanken, Ohm Reinhold? (Halbe's *Der Strom*, p. 11). Wir kommen ihm eben, wie man so einem kommen muß. Langsam, vorsichtig, Schritt um Schritt! (ib., p. 55) We shall attack it (the river, in attempting to regulate its course), &c. Laß dir nicht so kommen! Don't put up with such treatment! Komm mir nicht so! Don't speak to me in that way! Wagte sie einmal, ihren Mann nach Heinz zu fragen, so blieb er entweder ganz die Antwort schuldig oder hieß sie ihm mit dem Jungen ein für alle Mal nicht mehr zu kommen (Storm's *Hans und Heinz Kirch*). Ich habe das Gefühl, daß alles halbwegs Gescheite, das ich im Hirn hatte, vorausgibt ist, um Ihnen zu parieren (Suttners *Im Berghause*, p. 33), but Ich parierte den Schlag mit einem Stoch. Er steuert der Unordnung. Als sie endlich schlief, träumten ihr häßliche Dinge (H. Böhlau's *Adam und Eva*, chap. i). Er versiel einem traurigen Schicksal. Ich versiel den Ideen, die du kennst (Otto Ernst's *Jugend von heute*, 4, 7). Man muß dem Bösen wehren mit harter Strafe.

After transitive verbs of removal the dative is much used to indicate the person from whom the thing in the acc. is taken: Er nahm mir meine Brieftasche weg He took my pocket-book away from me. Er stahl mir meine goldene Uhr. Der Wolf raubt dem Hirten Schafe. This dat. is thus often rendered in English by *from*, but in German it does not in fact express separation, but is a *dative of interest* (see 3. B, below) denoting the person that is benefited or injured by the action.

e. A declaration, response, announcement, advice: absagen in the olden times to send a challenge to, now to break with a person, renounce a person or thing, abjure (one's faith), in other meanings with the acc. (as einen Versuch absagen to send an excuse for not coming, &c.), abschreiben (with dat. of person) to write to one to cancel or recall some previous engagement, in other meanings with acc., abschwören to renounce allegiance or fidelity to with the dat., to renounce a thing or abjure with acc. or dat., in other meanings with the acc., antworten (see a, Note) to answer, beten (with dat. only in elevated style, usually with zu + dat.) to pray to, bürgen (einem für etwas bürgen) to answer, vouch, be responsible to some one for, guarantee, entgegen to reply to, erwidern to reply to, flagen to complain to (in this meaning usually in connection with an object: einem sein Leid flagen), mourn for (earlier in the period with dat., now with acc. in poetic style, and in plain prose replaced by beklagen), klingeln, schellen, or läuten to ring the bell for, künden to give notice to leave (a dwelling, position, &c.), lügen to tell a lie to (in early N.H.G.; see Judges xvi. 10; now replaced by einen belügen), lie to or deceive (still in poetic language), predigen to preach to, raten advise, einem rufen (see 259. 26), einem or an einen schreiben, telegraphieren, telephonieren to write, telegraph, telephone, to some one: Ich habe ihm abgeschrieben. Wollt Ihr dem Kaiser abschwören? (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 2, 5). Ich kehrte in der Kirche Schoß zurück, | schmur meinen Irrtum ab in seine Hände (id., *Maria Stuart*, 1. 6). Ghe ich zu euch zurückkehrte, würde ich meinem Gott abschwören (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, VII). Der Herr klingelt dem Bedienten. Von fünf zu fünf Minuten hat er dem Kellner geläutet (Franz's *Der Gott des alten Doktors*, p. 270). Mir ist gekündigt I have received notice to leave (my position or dwelling, according to the connection). Denn alles leg mir, was ich hochgeachtet (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 2, 7). Wem nicht zu raten ist, dem ist auch nicht zu helfen. Er predigt tauben Ohren.

f. Poetry prefers the dat. in a large number of cases where in prose some other construction, especially a prep. phrase, is used: Einem [= vor seinen] Wunden, seinem Wunden | mocht' ich in die Kniee sinken (Goethe's *Faust*, I. 6630); schmunzeln (ib., l. 6100), rümpfen (l. 5272), &c. Das macht mich dem Tod erblaffen (Grillparzer's *Ahnfrau*, 2). Ich will lachen seinem Wüten (ib.). Nie hab' ich dem Tod gezittert (ib.). Dampf ertönte die Gegend dem [= von dem] Sturze (id., *Die Argonauten*, 2). Many other verbs might be added to these. Cf. 3. A. b.

g. In early N.H.G. other verbs not included in the above lists governed the dat., such as *beschreiben* (Matt. xxviii. 16), *lieben* (Ecclus. vii. 28; the dat. still surviving after the derivatives *belieben* and *gelieben*; see a. above) in early N.H.G. *to be dear to*, *betten* (see 259. 9), *schweigen* (Job xi. 3; now zu with dat.), *seg(e)nen* (2 Sam. xxi. 3), *fürzen* (1 Cor. vii. 21), *verschonen* (1 Sam. xv. 15), *verhindern*, &c. The fine shade expressed in the dat. is not felt so vividly as in earlier periods, and thus the dat. is gradually losing ground, yielding to the acc. Poetry still preserves here occasionally in case of *betten* and *schweigen* older usage.

B. The dative object stands after the following prefixes: *ab*, *an*, *auf*, *aus*, *bei*, *bevor*, *ein*, *ent*, *gegen*, *inne*, *nach*, *ob*, *unter*, *vor*, *voraus*, *voraus*, *vorbei* (see 259. 36), *vorher*, *wider*, *zu*, *zuvor*. Exs.: *Sein Betragen fiel mir auf* His conduct attracted my attention. *Der Name fällt mir nicht gleich wieder ein*. *Der Jäger stellt dem Wilde nach* The hunter is on the watch for the game. *Es kam mir sonderbar vor*. *Er eilte mir voran* He hurried on ahead of me. *Es ist doch merkwürdig, daß die Süddeutschen uns im Gesellschaftlichen immer um einen guten Schritt voraus sind* (Fontane's *Stechlin*, xxi). *Mir ist großes Unrecht widerfahren*. *Mir ist viel Gutes von ihnen widerfahren*. *Widerrede mir nicht*. *Er setzte mir mit Bitten stark zu*. *Er kam mir zuvor*. For exceptions see 262. I. b, 2nd par.

In M.H.G. *mit* belonged to this list, and survives in *mitspielen* to treat or use ill or roughly, play a nasty trick on (some one), lit. to tilt with: *Wie kannst du mir so mitspielen?*

The idea of personal interest is prominent in many of these datives, but the ideas of a goal, place, separation, point of departure, source, are also common: *Er geht seinem Schicksale mit Ruhe entgegen*. *Das Schiff steuerte dem Lande zu*. *Er lebte seinem Vorbilde nach*. *Es ist merkwürdig, daß manchem Namen etwas wie eine mythische Macht innewohnt* (Fontane's *Poggenpuhls*, chap. xi). *Er hat schon allem Glück entsagt*. *Du bist meinem Einflusse entwachsen*. *Er ist der Gefahr entflohen*. *Das Wort ist meinem Munde nur im Zorn entfahren*. *Er entstammt einem alten patrizischen Geschlecht*.

a. Transitives having these prefixes take a direct object of the person or thing in the acc. and an object of the person or thing in the dat., denoting the individual to whose advantage or disadvantage the action accrues, or indicating a goal, place, separation, source: *Er legt meinen Worten einen andern Sinn unter* He puts another meaning into my words. *Sie singt uns heute abend das Lied vor* She is going to sing the song to us this evening. *Er sagt mir Böses nach* He speaks ill of me. *Er bot mir seinen Beistand an*. *Er widersetzte sich der Obrigkeit*. *Du hast den Jüngling dem Berberben zugeführt*. *Er legt dem Pferde den Baum an*. *Er setzte dem Pferde einen Sattel auf*. *Er setzte dem Buche eine Vorrede vor*. *Er legte dem Hühne Eier zum Brüten unter*. *Du hast mich allem Leiden entrückt*. *Er hat das Beste in seinen Werken (von) den Alten entlehnt*. At the first glance it might seem that the dative in many of these compounds depends upon the preposition contained in the compound. A closer inspection, however, will show conclusively that the dative is used with *an*, *auf*, *unter*, *vor* even with verbs of motion, where according to usage elsewhere the acc. should be used. The dative is used with these prefixes without regard to the idea of rest or motion. Different factors have brought about this uniformity. In many of the compounds the idea of personal interest is stronger than the usual force of the preposition, and thus leads to the use of the dative. The words often have a figurative or altered meaning, so that the usual force of the preposition is not vividly felt. The use of the dative with the transitives here is made easy by the fact that the construction is thus conformed to one of the commonest types in the language, namely, the use of the dative in connection with an accusative. For additional treatment of this common type see 262. I. b. The employment of the dative with *wider* here while it elsewhere only governs the accusative is explained by older usage, according to which it took either dative or accusative.

b. Also a foreign prefix can take a dat. object if it has the force of a German prefix: Die wirkliche Etymologie sucht das Wort auf ein verloren gegangenes oder wenigstens aus dem Bewußtsein verschwundenes Stammwort von irgendwie verwandter Bedeutung zurückzuführen; die „Volksetymologie“ substituiert umgekehrt ein Wort mit bekannter Bedeutung einem anderen, wodurch dieses zugleich mehr oder weniger in seiner Bedeutung verändert wird (Wundt). Der Graf mußte sich schließlich noch beglückwünschen, als er 1805 dem Goeking'schen Husaren-Regiment als Major aggregiert wurde (Fontane's *Wanderungen*, I, p. 259). Wir meiden den Bezirk, welcher dem schwedischen Kriegsvolk kontribuiert (= beisteuert) (Freitag's *Rittmeister*, chap. iv). Wie können Sie mir dergleichen imputieren, was mir doch nicht einmal im Traume einfallen würde! (Spielhagen's *Sturmsut*, I. 9). Mit dem Objektiv hat das Partizipium gemein, daß es einem Substantivum des Sages attribuiert ist (Brugmann's *Kurze Vergleichende Grammatik*, p. 606). Wo ein Relativsatz einem einfachen Attribut koordiniert ist (*Anzeiger für deutsches Altertum und deutsche Literatur*, xxix, 3. Januar 1904, p. 173). Ja sehen Sie, wenn man den Frauen opponiert (entgegentritt), so nennen sie das immer Grobheit (Otto Ernst's *Jugend von heute*, I, 10). Thus also afflamieren to acclaim, applaud, applaudieren (sometimes also with acc.) to applaud, assentieren to agree with, assistieren to help, be present at, attachieren to attach to the suite of (, as in Er ist der [or bei der] Gesandtschaft attachiert), einem etwas avisieren to notify some one of something, imponieren to impress forcibly, awe, präsidieren to preside over, einem etwas preponieren to propose something to some one, suggerieren to suggest to, aufgebieren to follow, succeed.

C. The dative object also stands after a number of verbs loosely compounded with an adjective, noun, adverb, or prep. phrase: anheimfallen to fall to (one's lot), devolve upon, escheat to, fall a prey to, zum Ruhme gereichen to redound to (one's) glory, standhalten to hold one's own against, worthalten to keep one's promise with, zu gute kommen to be to one's benefit, heimkommen to come home to (in a fig. sense), zu Hilfe kommen to come to one's aid, zu statten kommen to come in handy to, be of use to, zu stehen kommen (see 259. 29) to cost, come to, heimleuchten to make short work with (some one), give (some one) a piece of one's mind, turn (some one) off, einem or einen (the dat. to be construed as the indirect object of the verb and angst as a noun used as direct object; the acc. to be construed as the direct object of the verb and angst as an objective predicate adjective) angst machen to frighten, alarm one, einem or einen bange (to be construed as an adverb with dat., or as an objective predicate adj.) machen to make one afraid, einem gruselig machen to make one feel creepy, einem or einen heiß machen to make one angry, excited, einem warm machen to make it hot for some one, den Hof machen to court, pay court to, das Wort reden to defend, einem für etwas gutschagen to stand responsible to some one for something, lobfingen to sing praises to, höhnpfeifen to scoff at, einem zur Vernunft sprechen to urge one to come to reason, be reasonable, Rede stehen to answer one, account to some one for something, zu Diensten stehen to be at one's service, genugtun to satisfy, guttun to do good to, benefit, leid tun to fill one with pity (see ex.), not sein or not tun to be needed (by some one), be lacking to, be necessary for, wehtun to hurt, grieve, sauer werden to become troublesome to, cause difficulty to, zu teil werden to fall to (one's) lot, wehtwollen to be kindly disposed toward, heinzahlen to pay (some one) back (fig.), and many others of like formation. Exs.: Das gereicht ihm zum Ruhme That redounds to his glory. Das kommt ihm zu gute He gets the benefit of it. Die Erfahrung kommt ihm zu statten Experience stands him in good stead. Das soll ihm teuer zu stehen kommen He shall pay dearly for that. Er hatte offenbar die löbliche Absicht gehabt, mir ein bißchen gruselig zu machen (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, IV). Das Kind sprach der Mutter zur Vernunft (Wildenbruch's *Die Alten und die Jungen*). Selbst mir, seinem besten Freunde, hat er nicht darüber Rede gestanden, was aus einer projektierten oder wirklich vollzogenen Heirat geworden ist, von der vor etwa sechs Jahren ein Gerücht

erging (Heyse's *Im Paradiese*, I, chap. vii). Die Arznei wird Ihnen guttun. Sie tun mir leid I feel quite sorry for you. Mut ist uns not und ein gefasster Geist (Schiller). Lenke deine Seele jetzt auf andere meinethwegen irdische Dinge, es tut dir not (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 4). Das ist, was uns not tut.

We often find this favorite dative construction where in English we have a prepositional object. In German both of these constructions are used with a slight shade of meaning. The preposition points to a person toward whom the activity is directed, while the simple dative represents the person as involved in the action in an emotional way or through personal interests: Es war der erste bleibende Eindruck, den ein weibliches Wesen auf mich gemacht hatte (Goethe's *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, I, 5). Welchen Eindruck hat sie Ihnen gemacht? (Suttner's *Im Berghause*, p. 42). Er wollte ihnen gleich bei der ersten Begegnung Eindruck machen und herrschte sie deshalb an, &c. (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, xxvi).

Such compounds occur often in connection with a dat. of the person or thing, and an acc. of the thing: Eines Tages stieg auch er langsam und gewichtig die drei Treppen zu Susannes Wohnung hinauf, um sich der Tante in Erinnerung zu bringen (Isolde Kurz's *Das Vermächtnis der Tante Susanne*). Er gab seine Familie dem Glende preis. Ich hielt es seiner Unwissenheit zu gute I put it down to his ignorance. Aber man wußte, daß der alte Herr seiner Zeit in Poldchow nicht angenommen worden war, und hielt ihm deshalb seinen Zorn zu gute (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 208) made allowance for his anger. Man kann ihm nichts zu Dank machen One can never please him. Niemand kann es ihm recht machen No one can satisfy, please him. Mach' mir nichts weiß Tell me no fibs. Er täte seiner Fliege was zuleide.

D. A number of impersonal verbs take a dat. object. These verbs are enumerated in 219. 4. A. b.

2. Also adjectives, participles, adverbs, and nouns, take a dat. object to denote that (usually a person) toward which the given quality or activity is directed: Er ist mir, den Lügen feind He is an enemy to me, to lies.

A. The following are the principal adjectives, participles, and adverbs which are used with the dative:

a. Those signifying inclination, attitude (harshness, kindness, favorableness, &c.), gratification, comfort, service, benefit, a belonging to, fidelity, obedience, fitness, nearness, similarity, conformity, superiority, and their opposites, all of which conform in general meaning to the verbs in 1. A, above: Er ist mir gram He has conceived a dislike toward me. Er ist mir böse (angry at). Ihr Besuch ist mir stets angenehm. Weil — weil's nicht wahr ist; und weil mir nichts zuwiderer ist als die Unwahrheit (Wildbrandt's *Die gute Lorelei*, vii). Sein Vergehen ist ihm leid He is sorry for his fault. Laß dir das nicht leid sein! Don't be uneasy about that! Das Unternehmen wurde ihm leid He began to repent of his enterprise. Diese Speise ist dem Kranken nicht zuträglich. Die Maikäfer sind den Bäumen schädlich. Die mir gehörigen Bücher the books which belong to me. Waschen ist den Kindern eigen. Das Mädchen ist ihm treu. Er ist seinen Idealen abtrünnig geworden. Er wohnt uns am nächsten He lives nearest to us. Meinem Hause benachbart liegt das Haus eines jüdischen Mannes (Heyse's *Maria von Magdala*, 1, 5). Der Knabe ist dem Vater sehr ähnlich. Die Kamele lagern Felsblöcken gleich im Sande. Die Richtung des Stromes, der Stromstrich, läuft hier dem Ufer nicht parallel. Er ist mir darin über He is superior to me in that, but when the subject is a thing über has developed a meaning somewhat different in its application: Das Leben, das sie jetzt führte, war ihr vñnehin über geworden (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, IX) She had besides become sick of the life, &c.

Note. The dative after adjectives, participles, and verbs is often replaced by a prep. construction. Except in figurative language, or in case of personification where things are represented as having interests, as in the ninth sentence, the prep. construction is the rule for nouns representing things, and is also common for persons, as the various prepositions can express so many appropriate shades of meaning: *Er ist mir geneigt* He is favorably inclined toward me, but *Der Mensch ist zum Bösen geneigt* Man is inclined to evil. *Die Schuhe passen mir* The shoes fit me, but *Der Dedel paßt auf den Topf* The lid fits on the kettle. *Die beiden Leute passen recht zu einander* The two form a good match. *Das Haus gehört (belongs) mir.* *Er gehört in das Haus* The house is the place for him. *Er gehört unter meine besten Freunde* He is one of my best friends. *Er gehört zu unsrer Freundschaft* He belongs to our circle of friends. *Dieser Schuh gehört auf den linken Fuß.* *Die Anmerkung gehört nicht hierher, sondern an eine andere Stelle.*

b. The dat. also stands after adjectives in many set expressions in connection with a verb, especially an impersonal verb: *Mir ist im Kopf* My head is confused. *Mir ist gar nicht lächerlich zu Mute* I am by no means in a laughing mood. *Mir wird von alle dem so dumm, als ging' mir ein Mülhtrad im Kopf herum.* *Mir ist übel* I feel sick at my stomach.

B. The dative is sometimes found with nouns which have meanings and form corresponding to verbs in 1 and adjectives in A, above: *Vergebens war es, daß der Bürgermeister Gehorsam dem Geseze forberte* (Immermann's *Münchhausen*, 6, 11). *Diese Kunstwerke sind bloß seit 1816 nach ihrer Einverleibung dem britischen Museum in die allgemeine Kenntniß übergegangen* (Springer's *Kunsthistorische Briefe*, p. 197). Although this dative has been attempted by different authors, it has not become established, and is usually replaced by a prep. construction: *Daß sich für die Jugend Gehorsam unter das Gesez ziemt* (Gutzkow). *Der Gehorsam der Untertanen gegen die Obrigkeit.* In many cases, however, the dative is seemingly connected with a noun, where in reality it belongs to the sentence as a whole, and is in fact a dative of personal interest as described in 3, A, B, C, below: *Er war mir ein Vater.* *Er ist . . . ein Muster Bürgern und Bauern* (Goethe's *H. und D.*, III, 53). *Das war euch eine Freude* That was a joy, I can tell you.

3. The Dative of Personal Interest. The dative in the preceding articles is more or less connected with a single verb, verbal expression, or an adjective whose meaning it completes, but the dative of the person (or far less commonly of the thing) interested in the statement is often used to qualify the whole sentence. This dative shows the following shades of use:

A. The dative of reference. The dative often denotes the person to whom the statement seems true, or with reference to whom it holds good: *Wir heißen ihn nur Kinder* We are to him only children. *Sie ist mir schön* To me she is pretty. *Das ist mir ein Rätsel* That is a riddle to me. *Das bleibt mir ein großer Trost.* *Das Kleid ist mir zu lang* The dress is too long for me. *Der Rock ist ihm nicht weit genug.* *Das ist mir nicht ganz klar.* *Es klang dem peinlich gespannten Ohr wie fernher rauschendes Wasser.* *Bin ich derselbe denn nicht mehr, dem hier sonst alle Türen sprangen?* Am I not any more the same man, to whom once all doors stood open? *Mir* (upon me, as far as I am concerned) *hinterließ seine Rede einen tiefen Eindruck.* *Das ist mir nicht*

erinnerlich I do not remember that. Er machte es mir leicht He made it easy for me. Er machte es mir möglich zu reisen. „Willst du sein Werben eine Drohung nennen?“ „Es ist die schrecklichste von allen mir“ (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 1, 2). Mir war zuweilen, als sei ich von unserm lieben Gott geschieden (Freitag's *Rittmeister*, ix). Ich möchte dir was sein können (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, 2). So (because he was supposed to be unacquainted with the German language) konnte er sich kleine Frechheiten erlauben, die **einem anderen** nicht durchgegangen wären (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan*?, iv).

A preposition can often replace the dative here, usually, however, with a shade of meaning: Die Nachricht war meinem Vater wichtig *The news was important to my father*, i. e. he felt it as such, but Die Nachricht war für meinen Vater wichtig *The news was of importance for my father*, i. e. in and of itself, whether he was conscious of it or not. Er ist den Armen ein Vater *He is a father to the poor* (and they feel the results of this relation), but Der nicht jung war mit unsern Jünglingen, | dem unsre Worte nicht zum Herzen tönen, | kann er ein Vater sein zu seinen Söhnen? (Schiller's *Jungfrau*, Prolog, 3), because the poet calls attention to the attitude rather than its resultant effects upon the persons.

a. Dative of agent. After the gerundive infinitive (180. A) and after verbal adjectives in *-bar* and *-lich*, this dat. has the force of a *dative of agent*, as the natural inference is that the person in the dat., with reference to whom the statement of the necessity or possibility of performing the action holds good, is also the one who actually performs it: Eine Last hab' ich getragen — [es ist] keinem Sterblichen zu fassen! (Lienhard's *König Arthur*, 5, p. 103). In the expression Das macht mir zu schaffen (185. B. I. 2. d, toward end) the dative is the usual expression. In connection with the gerundive, von is, in general, more common in plain prose and often necessary to make the thought clear: Von diesem bin ich zu retten. In connection with *-bar* and *-lich*, the dat. is usual: Das weimarische Theater war auf seinem höchsten ihm erreichbaren Punkt (Goethe). The theater at Weimar was at the highest point of perfection that could be attained by it. Alles dem Auge Erreichbare (id.). Steil ist der Fels, die Burg ganz unbezwinglich | und keinem, der nicht Flügel hat, erschwinglich (Gries) The precipice is steep, the fortress is impregnable and cannot be reached by one who has not wings. The prepositional construction with für is often in plain prose more common here: Er (i. e. dieser Versuch) macht jedoch keineswegs den Anspruch eine erschöpfende, grammatische Analyse der Sprache Shakespeares bieten zu wollen; eine solche ist für den Augenblick weder praktisch, noch war sie für mich zur Zeit ausführbar (Franz's *Shakspeare-Grammatik*, Vorwort). The für here gives the statement more objective force, while the simple dative would impart a subjective meaning representing the thought as the personal view of the speaker. Also when lassen has a reflexive object and a dependent infinitive with passive force, the agent can be in the dat.: Drauf läßt er sich dem (or more commonly von dem) Volke sehen (Gellert). Other examples are given in 262. III. 2. C. c.

b. Poetic Dative of Cause. In poetic language the dative is very common to denote a person or thing involved in the action in the relation of a cause: *Sieh, ich hebte nicht dir* (in prose *vor dir*), *ich hebte der furchtbaren Göttin* (Bürger). *Dem* (in prose *von dem*) *Stoß des Widders* *bebt der morsche Stein* (Platen's *Treue*, 2). The list of verbs given in 1. A. f might also be classed here. In prose the dative is usually replaced by a prep. construction.

B. The dative of interest. The dat. often denotes the person to whose advantage or disadvantage the action results: *Sein Herz schlug der ganzen Menschheit* His heart beat for all humanity. *Dir* (for you) *blüht gewiß das schönste Glück der Erde.* *Irre ich | so irre ich mir* (Job xix. 4). *Das Pferd lief ihm fort* The horse ran away from him, lit. ran away to his discomfiture.

This dat. is very common after trans. verbs, even when from an English standpoint there seems to be no need of it: *Schreiben Sie mir diese Aufgabe ab* Copy this exercise for me. *Komm' auch, sieh' dir's an* Come too and look at it for yourself. *Er kauft seinem Sohne ein Pferd.* *Kämmerer: Sie stirbt.* *Ute: Ich könnt' ihr* (for her sake) *wünschen, es wäre so!* (Hebbel's *Nibelungen*, II, vi, 5). *Keinem anderen wollte sie den Karren ziehen, aber ihm* (Carl Busse's *Die schöne Andrea*). *So nahm ich mir* (not translated into English) *zu Hause nur Zeit, mich anzuziehen* (dress) *und zu frühstücken, und fuhr sofort wieder nach Siebenbüsch* (name of a castle).

This dat. is much used in prose, but very much more so in poetry: *Wohl wittert jedes Wesen seinen Feind; | drum hegt auch dir* (in prose *gegen dich*) *der Kaiser wildern Haß | und unverföhllicheren, als mir* (= *gegen mich*) *selbst* (Uhland).

a. This dat. is used with unusual frequency instead of a possessive or a genitive: *Mir* (or *Dem Wilhelm*) *scheint die Sonne ins Gesicht* The sun shines in my (or William's) face. Here, as in English, the possessive or gen. might also be used: *Die Sonne scheint in mein Gesicht* (or in *Wilhelms Gesicht*). These two constructions are not, however, exactly equivalent in force. The dat. makes more prominent the person to whose advantage or disadvantage the action accrues. Sometimes both dat. and possessive are used: *Es gibt böse Geister, | die in des Menschen unverwahrter Brust | sich augenblicklich ihren Wohnplatz nehmen* (Schiller). This double construction is in our own time a characteristic of popular speech: *Wenn ich an den Arnd* (name) *jetzt denke und an Sie, Herr Kunemund, und an die Gertrud und die Hunde und das übrige Vieh und das ganze gute alte Leben, so könnte ich mir mein Hemde in meinen Tränen waschen* (Raabe's *Meister Autor*, chap. 17). See also 138. 3.

C. Ethical dative. The dat. is not only, as in the preceding article, used to denote the person who has a *material* interest in the action, but is also often employed to denote the person who has or is expected to have an *emotional* interest in the statement, especially a dat. of a personal pronoun in the 1st or 2nd person which is frequently in conversation inserted here and there, in some particular proposition, to indicate that that particular point seems important to the speaker or should be noted by the person

addressed: Sieh mir nicht so finster aus Pray, don't look so sullen. Das war euch eine Freude That was a joy, I can tell you. Seid mir recht artig, ihr Kinder Come, children, I do want you to be real good. Daß mir keiner aufß Eis geht! I don't want one of you to go upon the ice. Rede mir doch nur! Come, don't be bashful, speak right out, for I am anxious to hear it. Sprich dem Vater (not an indirect object here, but an ethical dat.) lieber nicht erst von diesem Vorhaben Don't say anything to father about this plan now, for you can expect from him no interest in it, but rather opposition. Immer wußte sie etwas Neues, und so giftig kam Ihnen bei ihr alles heraus She always had something new to relate, and I tell you, she had a mean way of telling it. This dat. cannot easily be rendered into modern English; though the same construction is common in Shakespeare: Whip me such honest knaves (*Othello*, I, 1. 47).

4. In the eighteenth century and even later a dat. is found with fühlen, kennen, wissen, and wollen or begehren, where a prep. phrase is now used: Ich fühle mir (now in mir) Hoffnung, Mut und Kraft (Goethe). Ich hatte eine größere Heiterkeit des Geistes gewonnen, als ich mir (an mir) lange nicht gekannt (Goethe). Und hätt' ich dir (bei dir) ein so veröhnlich Herz gewußt (Schiller). Weiß ich, was Saladin mir (von mir) will? (Lessing). Was sie ihm wolle (Freitag's *Bild*, 1, 200). Was mir (von mir) die Göttliche begehrt, das weiß ich (H. v. Kleist).

5. It is a marked peculiarity of the uneducated that they use an accusative often where a dative is in place, and on the other hand a dative where an accusative should be employed: Laß mir in Ruh! Ich hab' nichts mit dich zu schaffen! (May in Halbe's *Das tausendjährige Reich*, p. 128).

Either Dative or Accusative according to Meaning or from Unsettled Usage.

259. Some verbs take the dat. or acc. according to the meaning involved, while others, on account of fluctuation of usage, admit of both cases without a difference of meaning. The difference of construction with the same verb usually results from analogy, the verb breaking away from its original construction to follow that of another verb of the same meaning.

1. **angehen** to concern, usually with acc., but occasionally also with dat. in accordance with the nature of the dat. to express a relation which concerns inner or material interests (see 258. 1): Was gehen dem Christen dieses Mannes Beweise an? (Lessing, 10, 10). Das geht mich nichts an, or Das geht mir nichts an (Hildebrand's *Vom deutschen Sprachunterricht*, p. 65).

2. **ankommen**: (A) *to depend or hinge upon*, with dat. of interest: Es kommt mir auf ein paar Taler nicht an I do not mind giving a few talers more. (B) *To get at*, with dat.: Man kann dem Verbrecher nicht ankommen. (C) *To come* (hard, easy, &c.) *for*, with acc. early in the period, but later also with dat., the fluctuation continuing without a marked preponderance of either form: Und es kam sie hart an über der geburt (Genesis xxxv. 17). Es ist mir schwer angekommen (Schiller). Und das hinzunehmen, wäre mir hart angekommen (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, xvi). Sauer ist's mich genug angekommen (Anzengruber's *Schandfleck*, VII). Es kam ihm sauer an, daß er ihr jetzt einen großen Schmerz bereiten sollte (Rosegger). Es kam ihm hart genug an (R. Voss's *Das Opfer*, XI). Es ist mir hart angekommen, meinem Jugendfreund dieses Leid anzutun (Schubert). Es kam mich hart an, mich zu verstellen (Marriot). Sie fühlte, daß sie den

größten Verlust erlitt, daß es für die anderen, so schwer es sie ankam, doch nicht das bedeutete, wie für sie (G. Ompteda). (D) *To befall, come upon*, with acc. in early N.H.G., later also frequently with dat., now perhaps more commonly with acc.: Furcht und zittern ist mich ankomen (Psalm lv. 6). Nicht einen Augenblick ist mir eine Furcht vor der Hölle angekommen (Goethe). Der verstorbene Schickelanz hatte, wie der Tod ihn ankam, ein Leben hinter sich, das sich in zwei sehr verschiedene Hälften teilte (Fontane's *Stechlin*, xii). Daneben hatten es ihre Briefe an sich, daß etwas wie leichte Vergiftung daraus hervorzuquellen schien, so daß mir Leid und Weh ankam (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, XXV). Mich kam ein gewaltiges Erschrecken an (ib.). Und wie mir nun einfiel, daß ich ganz allein in dem öden Hause war, kam mir ein Schauer an (ib. XXVIII).

3. **anliegen** *to entreat*, usually with dat., though occasionally the acc. after the analogy of *angehen to entreat* is found: Ich lag der Mutter an, und diese suchte den Vater zu bereden. Hier lag Antonio den König sehr an, ihm beizuspringen (Lessing, 6, 163).

4. **anwandeln** *to befall, come over*, usually with acc., occasionally also intransitively with dat.: Furcht wandelt mich nicht an. Was ist dir angewandelt? (Tieck).

5. **ausbieten**: (A) *to give notice to leave the house, city, &c.*, with dat. or acc.: Ich biete dem Junfer aus (Schiller) I'll give the young gent notice to keep off the premises. In Wien hat man alle Fremden ausgeboten (Goethe) In Vienna all strangers have been given notice to leave. (B) *To outbid* (= überbieten), with acc.

6. **bedeuten** *to instruct, inform, give a sign to somebody that* (with dependent clause) or (with infin.) *to give somebody to understand, to order*, except in the first two meanings usually with dat. of the person and the acc. of the thing, or instead of the acc. a clause or infinitive: Danfmar bedeutete ihm Ruhe (Gutzkow). Man bedeutet ihm zu schweigen (Otto Ernst's *Flachsmann als Erzieher*, 3, 8). Unmutig wendete und warf er sich hin und her und gab zuletzt dem Wächter Befehl, dem Musikanten zu bedeuten, daß er den Mund halte (Raabe). The acc. of the person is also not infrequently found, usually so in the first two meanings: Therese bedeutete den Verwalter in allem (Goethe). Da sie ziemlich laut sprach, kam der Pfarrer ans Fenster und fragte, was es gebe. Sie bedeutete ihn (id., *Dichtung und Wahrheit*, II, 10). Bleiben Sie nur, bedeutete ihn Louis (Gutzkow). Die Frau, die ihn stehend empfing, bedeutete ihm mit einem Wink der Hand, Platz zu nehmen (Wildenbruch's *Vice-Mama*). Da ich ihn bedeutete, daß sein Vater auch das Krankenzimmer meide, da schüttelte er den Kopf (Meinhardt's *Heinz Kirchner*). Mattes Ehrenreich . . . bedeutete sie durch Gebärden, daß er das Geld bei sich habe (Schönherr's *Sonnwendtag*, p. 71). The acc. of the person explains the frequent passive construction here: Schnell werden wir bedeutet, hier sei von einer Mehrheit die Rede (Goethe). Er will sich nicht bedeuten lassen He will not listen to reason.

7. **befehlen, befehligen, gebieten**: (A) *befehlen to commend, commit*, with acc. of the thing, now limited to elevated diction: Vater | Ich befehl meinen Geist in deine Hände (Luke xxiii. 46). Befehl dem HERRN deine Wege (Psalm xxxvii. 5). (B) *Befehlen to command, to give a command to*, with dat. of person: Er befahl mir hinzugehen. (C) *Befehlen to order to appear at, summons, invite* (used in circles where the invitation is equal to a command as in case of an invitation or request from a prince, king), with acc. of the person: Der Fürst befahl ihn zur Tafel The prince invited him to dinner. In the meanings *to desire, order to bring, or pass* (a thing) with acc.: Befehlst du deine Pfeife, Papa? (Sudermann's *Die Heimat*, I, 6). Befehlen Sie noch etwas Suppe? May I help you to some more soup? (D) *Befehligen* usually used in the sense of *to have command of* (in a military sense), with acc. of the thing: Er befehligt das Heer, den linken Flügel des Heeres. (E) *Gebieten* with a simple acc. of the thing, *to enjoin, impose, require*: Er gebietet Stillschweigen. Die Freundschaft gebietet es. With the simple dative of the person or personified

thing, *to govern, rule, curb, bridle*: So vielen gebietest du! (Schiller's *Wallensteins Tod*, 2, 3). Er gebietet seinen Leidenschaften. With dat. of person and acc. of thing: Er gebietet ihnen Stillschweigen.

8. **belieben**: (A) *to choose, please, like*, with dat. when the subject is a thing, when it is a person, with acc.: Es beliebte ihm nicht zu antworten He did not choose to answer. Nehmen Sie, was Ihnen beliebt (pleases). Belieben Sie (would you like to have) roten Wein? (B) *To inspire love in somebody for something*, with dat. of person and acc. of thing, a Swiss idiom: [Er] wandte sich an die Regierung, indem er ihr die Erhaltung einzelner schöner Bäume als einen allgemeinen Grundsatz belieben wollte (Keller's *Seldw.*, 2, 262).

9. **betten**: (A) *to make the bed(s)* always intrans. : Das Mädchen hat noch nicht gebettet. Also a dat. of interest can be associated with the verb, *to prepare a couch for, to bed* (horses, &c.): Wem (for whom) die Liebe bettet, ruhet gut (Chamisso). Er bettet dem Vieh. (B) In the sense *to lay oneself or some one down to repose* betten was used earlier in the period intransitively with a dat. of interest, while present usage employs it transitively with a direct object after the analogy of sich hinlegen, or einen ins Bett legen: Bettet ich mir in die Helle | Sihe | so bistu auch da (Psalm cxxxix. 8). Noch versuch' ich's, sie zu retten, | wo nicht, auf ihrem Sarge mir zu betten (Schiller's *Maria*, 3, 8). Ich bettete mich auf weiches Moos. Die Mutter bettete das Kind in die Kammer. The dative still survives in poetic style.

10. **bezahlen** *to pay*, with the dat. of the person and acc. of the thing when there are two objects, but with the acc. of the person if the thing stands after a prep. or is omitted altogether: Ich habe dem Schneider die Rechnung bezahlt. Ich habe den Schneider für den Rock bezahlt. Ich habe den Schneider bezahlt. Sometimes, however, the dat. in the latter case: Das Mädchen selbst . . . mit deren Hoffnung | er gern mir zu bezahlen schiene (Lessing's *Nathan*, 4, 4).

11. **dünken** (and the rare form dünkeln) and the less common form **bedünken** (and the rare form bedünkeln) *to seem* took in early N.H.G. the acc. almost regularly, but now, after the analogy of vorkommen and scheinen *to seem*, take also the dat.: Es dünkt, or deucht, or bedünkt mich or mir. Ich dünke mich or mir etwas (zu sein) I think myself to be somebody of consequence. Although the accusative is, in general, more common, the dative is often more expressive and hence preferred to emphasize the personal element: Unter den vornehmen „Flandrischen“ aber war Richwin wiederum der Reichste und Vornehmste und es dünkte ihm, er sei doch fast um einen Kopf über die Zünfte überhaupt hinausgewachsen und auf ein Haar so groß wie ein Patrizier (Riehl's *Der stumme Ratsherr*, I).

12. **gelten**: (A) *to be aimed at, be intended for*, with dat.: Der Anschlag galt nicht seinem Leben, sondern seinem Geld. Wem gilt diese Bemerkung? (B) *To concern, be valued at, be worth*, with adverbial acc., sometimes also with dat. of interest in addition to the acc.: Es gilt sein Leben It concerns his life, or His life is at stake. Das Buch gilt einen Taler. Das Gemälde gilt mir zehnmal mehr (acc.) als es mir kostet.

13. **gelüsten** *to covet, long for, lust after*, with acc. of the person and gen. of the thing, or more commonly the thing is in the dat. after the prep. nach: Das dich nicht gelüsten deines Nehesten Weibs (Exodus xx. 17). Es gelüftet das Kind nach dem Obst. Also the dat. of the person is here sometimes used, after the analogy of the dat. with other verbs of kindred meaning as belieben, gefallen: Es gelüftete ihnen nach einer Cyane (blue-bottle) (von Hörmann). See also 262. II. B. d, 2nd paragraph.

14. **getrauen, trauen**: (A) The simple verb trauen in the meaning *to trust in, rely upon*, takes the dat. or a prep. phrase: Ich traue ihm or auf ihn. Ich traue ihm nicht über die Gasse I would not trust him across the street. (B) Trauen or getrauen *to dare, venture*, with acc., rarely with dat., if there is no dependent infinitive: Ich getraute mich nicht dorthin I did not venture to go

there. Ich getraue mich nicht zu ihm (to go to his house). (c) Trauen or getrauen to trust one's self, or have confidence in one's self, or be bold enough to undertake something, to dare, with acc. or dat., if there is a dependent infinitive: Ich getraue mich or mir es zu tun. If there are two inflected objects, one of the person and one of the thing, the person is in the dat. and the thing in the acc.: Ich getraue mir den Sprung nicht I haven't the courage to make the leap. Earlier in the period, the acc. of the person and the gen. of the thing was common here, and still occurs in poetic language: Ich getraue mich dessen I have the courage to attempt it. In such sentences as Er getraut sich's, the es, which is in reality a gen. (see 140. c), was taken for an acc., and the acc. sich was erroneously taken for a dat., and thus arose the now common construction of the dative of the person and the acc. of the thing. (D) Trauen to unite in wedlock, always with the acc.: Der Prediger wird meine Schwester trauen.

15. **glauben**: (A) to believe in the sense of having confidence in the veracity of somebody, or the reliability of something, with the dat.: Ich glaube ihm. Ich glaubte meinen Augen kaum, als ich ihn sah. (B) To believe to be true, with the acc.: Diese Geschichte glaube ich nicht. The dat. of the person represented as the authority for the statement can also accompany the acc. of the thing: Kein Mensch glaubte ihm das No one believed him when he said that. (C) To have a firm belief that something exists, or that the claims, teachings of somebody are worthy of implicit confidence, usually with the acc. after the prep. an, but sometimes with the simple acc.: Er glaubt an Gott, an Christum, an Träume, an Geister, an die Wahrheiten der Religion, an die Auferstehung der Toten. Goethe: (Gretchen asks:) Glaubst du an Gott? (Faust replies:) Wer darf ihn nennen? Und wer befehlen: | ich glaub' ihn (= an ihn)? | Wer empfinden | und sich unterwinden | zu sagen: ich glaub' ihn (= an ihn) nicht?

16. **grauen, grausen, grauseln, gruseln, &c.** For fluctuations of usage among impersonal verbs, see 219. 4.

17. **helfen**: (A) to help, now usually with the dat. Earlier in the period the acc. was also sometimes used here: HERR du hilffest beide Menschen und Bihe (Psalm xxxvi. 7). Lieber Pape [Papa], ich helfe dich (Goethe's *Des Künstlers Erdenwallen*, 1) (probably used here for the sake of the rhyme or in imitation of the language of a child). In the colloquial language of the North we sometimes find an acc. of the thing, a construction well known in English and Low German: Jan: „Oh, Raptin, — ist funn dat doch nich helpen!“ — und die kleine Frau Doktorin lächelte den Gestrengen äußerst reizend an und meinte: „Wirklich — er konnte es nicht helfen, Herr Kapitän (Schulze-Smidt's *O Tannebaum*, III). (B) to avail or profit, with dat., or earlier in the period also quite frequently the acc. of the person: Was hilf's den Menschen [acc. sing.] | wenn er die ganze Welt gewünne | und neme an seiner Seelen schaden (Mark viii. 36). Was hilfst dich's, der beste zu sein? (Goethe's *Rein. F.*, 8). Es hilft ihn nichts (Uhland).

18. **hören** to **hearken**, **listen**, usually w. dat. or more commonly a prep. phrase, sometimes w. acc. in elevated discourse: Er horcht dem Gesange der Vögel. Du siehst, ich horche deinen Worten (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 5, 4). Er horcht auf die Musik. Man darf vor dem Knaben nicht reden, er horcht auf jedes Wort. Horche auf meinen Wunsch. So sangen die Parzen; | es horcht der Verbannte | in nächtlichen Höhlen | der Alte [auf] die Lieder, | denkt [an] Kinder und Enkel (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 4, 5). The prep. inclosed in brackets would be required in prose.

19. **kleiden** to **clothe**, always w. acc., but in the meaning to become, look well upon, w. either the acc. or dat. (not rare as stated by grammarians): Die weiße Vinde kleidet dich nicht (Goethe). Die Bösken kleiden, wie üppige Kränze nur braune Locken (C. F. Meyer's *Plautus*). Manchem kleidet es zu sprechen, und manchem kleidet es zu schweigen (Fontane's *Stechlin*, XV, p. 197).

20. **fosen** to **caress**, **make love to**, w. acc., rarely w. dat.: Ist's möglich, daß ich, Liebchen, dich fose? (Goethe's *Div.*, 8, 7). Dir mit Wohlgeruch zu fosen (ib., 7, 2). Now more commonly mit einem fosen.

21. kosten: (A) *to taste*, always w. acc. when used transitively. (B) *To cost*, w. dat. or now perhaps less commonly acc.: Diese Arbeit hat mir or mich viel Mühe gekostet. The acc. here leads *kommen to cost* to take sometimes the acc. instead of the correct dat.: Das kame Sie sehr kostspielig (*Über Land und Meer*). See also 29, below.

22. liebkosten *to caress*, formerly with the dat. and in choice language still with that case: Er ... liebte sie ihnen so schön (Wieland's *Grazien*, 3). Ich liebte dir (Heyse's *Meleager*, I). Was bin ich für ihn? Nicht wert, daß nur seine Hand meiner Wange liebte (id., *Maria von Magdala*, 4, 1). Now quite commonly with the acc. after the analogy of küssen and hängen: Die Mutter liebte ihr Kind.

23. lohnen *to reward*, w. dat. of the person and acc. of the thing when there are two objects: Er lohnt mir meine Mühe He pays me for my trouble. When there is only one object, and that is a thing, it is now occasionally in the genitive in accordance with older usage (as in Lessing's *Minna*, 5, 9), more commonly, however, in the accusative and sometimes in the dative: Der Gewinn lohnt der Mühe (genitive now usually confined to this word) or die Mühe nicht. Solchen gottseligen Taten kann nur Gott lohnen (Goethe). Lebhafter Beifall lohnte auch dieser Rede wie allen vorhergegangenen (H. Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. 27). If the single object is a person it may be in the dative or accusative, the dative emphasizing the idea of inner gratification, the accusative that of financial compensation: Lebhafter Beifall lohnte dem Redner. Er lohnt die Arbeiter. This distinction is not strictly observed: Den lohnt nicht Gold, den lohnt Gesang (Bürger).

24. nachahmen *imitate*, **nachäffen** *to ape*, **imitate**, **nachmachen** *to copy*, **imitate**: (A) The person is in the dat. and the thing in the acc. if there are two objects: Er macht mir das Kunststück nach He is copying this trick from me. „Ich verachte dich sehr," äffte ich ihr nach und betonte das „sehr" noch schärfer als sie (Carl Busse's *Digga*). (B) If there is only one object and that the name of a thing or a person whose name is used instead of his works, it is now usually in the acc.: Er ahmt den Gang und die Gebärden seines Bruders nach. Wie ich als Knabe den Terenz nachzuahmen wagte (Goethe). (C) If there is only one object and that a noun representing a person or a thing which is endowed with personal attributes, it is in the dat. when the verb has the meaning of striving in a laudable way to imitate somebody, but the acc. when the verb is used in the sense of mechanical copying: Viele Dichter ahmen dem Schiller nach. Der Schauspieler ahmt (imitates in the role that he is playing all the external characteristics of) einen Franzosen nach.

25. raten: (A) *to advise*, w. dat. of the person, or if there are two objects w. the dat. of the person and acc. of the thing: Sie rieten mir dazu You advised me to do it. Er riet mir Gutes He gave me good advice. (B) *To guess*, w. acc. of the thing: Man rät ein Rätsel.

26. rufen *to call*, **schreien** *to cry out to*, **pfeifen** *to whistle for*, **locken**, **förnen**, **födern** *to decoy*, **flingeln**, **läuten**, **schellen** *to ring*, **winken** *to make a sign to*, **flehen** *to implore*, take a dat. to denote the person toward whom the action is directed, and with the exception of schreien, schellen, läuten, and flingeln, may with a slight shade of meaning take the acc. to represent the person as the direct object of the action: Sie wird bei Susan sein; ruft ihr doch! She is probably with Susan; call out to her! Wer ruft mir? (Otto's Ernst's *Die Gerechtigkeit*, 2, 1). But Rufe sie! Call her! Although the dative was not infrequent earlier in the period and survives in part still, present usage inclines toward other constructions in case of some of these words. Rufen, locken, förnen, and födern usually take the acc., schreien and flehen, zu + dat., while winken may still take a simple dat. and flingeln, läuten, and schellen either a simple dat. or a prepositional construction: Als sie Berta Witt sah, winkte sie ihr (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, II, 5). Der Herr klingelt dem Bedienten or nach dem Bedienten. Klingeln,

läuten, and schellen may also take an accusative in connection with a prep. phrase: Bald war ich auch am Doktorhause und klingelte den alten Doktor Schnittger aus den Federn (Storm's *John Riew*). Rufen, schreien, and winken can still be freely used with a dat. of the person in connection with a direct object of the thing, an infinitive, or clause: Bald rief mir meine Mutter: „Komm,“ or zu kommen, or daß ich kommen sollte. Man winkte ihm Aufmunterung. Rufen is used with the simple dat. in a few expressions and pfeifen quite commonly so, and pfeifen, rufen, and winken can also take the acc. of the person in connection with a prep. phrase: Er rief seinem braunen Hühnerhund, der in einem Winkel gelegen hatte (T. Storm). Dem Männchen rufen to call the male. Er pfeift seinem Hunde. Er pfiß den Hund zu sich hin. In Switzerland rufen with dat. is used in the sense of *to call for*: Die Beschaffenheit der Schullokalitäten ruft dringend einer Reparatur (Blümner's *Zum schweizerischen Schriftdeutsch*, p. 47).

27. **sagen** to say, tell, w. a dat. of the person and an acc. of the thing, when there are two objects: Er sagte mir die Wahrheit. However, the simple dat. is replaced by zu w. dat. when the exact words of direct discourse are reported: Die Kinder sagen meist zu ihren Eltern Papa und Mama. Er sagte zu mir: „Ich komme morgen wieder,“ but indirectly: Er sagte mir, er komme morgen wieder. Dialectic and French influences often affect the construction here and cause the dropping of the zu in direct discourse: „Ich habe,“ sagte sie ihm (for zu ihm) mit bewegter Stimme, „deine Gegenwart gewünscht.“

28. **sprechen, reden**: (A) *to speak*, usually require some prep. as mit, zu, an before the case of the person: Ich sprach einige Worte zu ihm. Ich sprach mit ihm. Ich rede mit ihm. We sometimes find an acc. of the thing and the dat. of the person: Solch ein vernünftiges Wort hast du mir selten gesprochen (Goethe's *H. und D.*, II, 106). When a prep. phrase modifies the verb in connection with a personal object, we not infrequently find the simple dat. of the person instead of a prepositional construction: Niemand spricht gern einem andern von seiner Liebe (Zschokke). O mein Bruder! sprich mir nicht von der Ehe! (Ebers). The simple dat. here is usually a gallicism which is not especially to be recommended, but it is sometimes a good German *dative of interest* or an *ethical dative*, as in the last sentence. (B) *Sprechen* (not *reden*) *to talk* (consult) *with*, w. acc. of the person when there is no object of the thing: Ich möchte Sie auf einige Augenblicke allein sprechen.

29. **stehen**: (A) *To become, look well*, w. dat.: Das blaue Kleid steht ihr ausgezeichnet. (B) *To take one's stand against*, w. dat.: Ich stehe selbst in meinen Jahren noch dem Feinde. (C) *To be equal to, be a match for*, w. acc.: Er steht seinen Mann He is a match for any fellow. Der Mann steht (*comes up to*) seinen Ruhm (Lessing). (D) *zu stehen kommen to cost*, usually w. the dat.: „Etwas kommt einem teuer zu stehen“ ist Rest einer ältern ausgedehnteren Verwendung von stehen = „zu verkaufen sein für einen gewissen Preis“ (H. Paul). After the analogy of *kosten to cost* the acc. is also used: Das kommt dich billiger zu stehen (Spitteler's *Conrad*, p. 158). Sometimes simple *kommen* is still used here; see 21, above.

30. **steuern**: (A) *to steer*, trans. w. acc.: Der Schiffer steuert sein Schiff. (B) *To check, prevent*, w. dat.: Der Lehrer steuert dem Zuspätkommen der Schüler.

31. **trauen**, see *getrauen*, above.

32. **überkommen**: (A) *to come over, seize*, usually with acc. but occasionally with dat.: Eine plötzliche Angst überkam mich. Eine tiefe [geistige] Lähmung überkam ihn (Lewald). Sie wandten der eben Nachschauenden den Rücken, und sonderbar, wie mit einer Augentäuschung überkam es dem Blick Sibylle Lundhorsts (Jensen's *Jenseits des Wassers*, ix). (B) Regularly w. the dat. in intrans. use with the meaning *to be transmitted to, be delivered to*: Der Name ist mir überkommen und so kann es mir persönlich nur obliegen, ihm, nach dem bescheidenen Maße meiner Fähigkeiten, Ehre zu machen (Fontane's *Cécile*, chap. 13). Ein Brief ist mir überkommen.

33. **überwiegen** *to outweigh*, w. acc., rarely w. dat.: Der Tadel überwog das Lob.

34. vergeben und verzeihen: (A) *vergeben to forgive*, w. simple dat. of the person, or if there are two objects w. dat. of the person and acc. of the thing: Und vergib uns unsere Schuld (now Schulden) wie wir unsern Schuldigern vergeben (Matt. vi. 12). Ich vergebe dir die Beleidigung. (B) *Vergeben to poison*, correctly with the dat., but after the analogy of *vergiften* also with the acc., now rather uncommon in this meaning. (C) *Verzeihen to pardon, condone*, with the same construction as *vergeben* in (A): Verzeih mir. Verzeih mein Unrecht. Verzeih mir mein Unrecht.

35. versichern: (A) *to assure*, w. dat. of the person and acc. of the thing, or the acc. of the person and gen. of the thing: Ich versichere Ihnen dies, or Ich versichere Sie dessen I assure you of this. The acc. of the person is often incorrectly used with acc. of the thing: see 262. II. B. b. The thing is usually expressed by a clause and then either the dat. or acc. of the person is used: Ich versichere Ihnen, (or Sie,) daß ich dies tun werde. Of the constructions *accusative and genitive* and *dative and accusative* the former is more common, while of the constructions *accusative and clause* and *dative and clause* the latter is more common. Aside from the question of greater frequency there exist, doubtless, shades of meaning between the different constructions. The dative emphasizes the idea of personal interest or reference, while the accusative indicates a greater intensity of the verbal action and emphasizes its direct bearing upon the object: Fiel Troja? Teurer Mann, versich' es mir (dat. of interest) (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 2, 2). Er versicherte mir (the party to whom the statement was made), daß er kommen werde. Ich versichere es (140. c) Sie auf mein Ehrenwort. Wenn ich dich nun auf meine Ehre versichere, daß usw. (Lessing). Man hat mich wiederholt versichert, daß usw. Er versicherte den Verwaisten seines Beistandes (or if the idea of personal interest is uppermost: versicherte dem Verwaisten seinen Beistand). Correspondingly in the passive: Mir (the interested party) ist wiederholt versichert worden, daß alles in Ordnung sei, und nun dieser Fehlbetrag! Mir wird versichert, daß usw. *I am told, assured, that, &c.*, not Ich werde versichert, daß usw.; but Seien Sie versichert, daß usw. *You can rely upon it that, &c.* (B) *To insure* (one's house, &c.), always w. acc.: Ich werde mein Haus gegen Feuersgefahr versichern lassen.

36. vorbei (coming up to something and then passing beyond), **vorüber** (from one side to another) *past*, in composition with verbs of motion take a prepositional phrase as a complement, or a simple dative or accusative: Er ging an mir vorbei, ohne mir guten Tag zu sagen. Bei einem einzeln stehenden Hause ziehen wir vorbei (Liliencron's *Kriegsnovellen*). Spazier' ein Stündchen lang dem Spiegelglas vorüber (Goethe's *Faust*, I. 2887). Ich pariere, wenn wir wettsaufen, ich laufe dir vorbei (Märchen). Kaum ein Wagen ging mir vorbei (Wildenbruch's *Die heilige Frau*, p. 122). Dagmar ging mit unhörbaren Schritten, da sie dem Gelaß vorbeisamen (Storm's *Ein Fest auf Haderslevhuus*, p. 289). Du gehst dein Schloß vorüber (Uhland). Of these constructions the prepositional one is more common for the literal idea of passing and going beyond. The dative emphasizes the person or thing which is associated with the action, as in the third, fourth, fifth, and sixth sentences. The acc. represents the person or thing as the object of an action, and is now most common in the figurative sense *to pass by, pass without mention, overlook, slight*: Eine Bemerkung, die hierher zu gehören scheint, kann ich nicht vorbeigehen (Lavater). Nicht ungern gehen sie den Bischof vorbei und wenden sich an den Papst (Ranke).

The accusative construction can be put into the passive: [daß] wird als bekannt vorbeigegangen (Lessing).

In literal use the acc. is not so common as the other constructions, but it was not infrequent earlier in the period.

The verb of motion is often omitted in these constructions: Bald war der Oberst dieser Truppe, nur von einem Trompeter begleitet, bei mir vorüber [geritten] (Liliencron's *Kriegsnovellen*). Es begegneten uns bald Leute, die uns erst verwundert anstarrten, und wenn wir ihnen vorbei waren, stehen blieben, &c. (Raabe).

37. *Accusative or dative of the person affected.* Usage often makes a fine distinction between the dat. and acc. after such verbs as *to beat, strike, hit, bite, seize, &c.*, when the activity of the verb is represented as affecting a person. If the person alone is mentioned without indication of the particular part of the body affected, the acc. is used: *Die Mutter schlägt das Kind mit der Rute.* If the part of the body affected is mentioned, the acc. of the person or personified thing is used, when the person is represented as the objective point of the activity in a literal, exterior sense, but the dat. is employed when he is represented as more or less interested or involved in the action, either as to his material interests, comfort, or his inner feelings, or as affected by an accident or the operations of a natural law: *Ich schneide mich in den Finger,* but *Die Trauerbotschaft schneidet mir durch den Leib.* *Er griff mich an der Kehle* *He caught me by the throat* (it was his purpose to do so), but *Der herabfallende Ziegel schlug mir grade auf den Kopf* *The falling tile hit me right on the head* (the falling was accidental). *Er verwundete seinen Gegner an den Schläfen,* but *Der Arzt schneidet dem Kranken ins Fleisch* *The physician cuts into the flesh of the patient* (for the good of the latter). *Nimm die Händchen vom Ofen weg,* du brennst dich sonst daran, but *Der Streich brennt mir noch auf der Wange.* *Er hat den Nagel auf den Kopf getroffen,* but *Der Rauch beißt mir in die Augen.* *Er hat mich ins Gesicht geschlagen,* but *Das schlägt der Wahrheit ins Gesicht* (Wustmann). *Du hast mich mit deinem Stock ins Auge gestochen,* but *Am Schaufenster stach mir ein schöner Brillant Schmuck ins Auge* (id.). We even find this distinction in case of verbs that do not take a simple acc. of the person in the same meaning: *Er trat mich auf den Fuß* (intentionally), but *Im Gedränge tritt man einer Frau auf den Fuß.* This distinction, however, is often not observed: „Herr, Ihr habt mich | unsanft auf den Fuß getreten“ — Sprach jung Werner: „Das bedau'r ich“ (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Zehntes Stück).

A good deal depends in all the above cases upon the standpoint of the speaker, so that usage is quite unsettled here. If the person is conceived as interested, the dative is used, but if the person is regarded as an object the accusative is employed.

Genitive Object.

260. The genitive object after verbs and adjectives is a rapidly decaying construction, especially after verbs. There is now no strongly marked shade of meaning in this object in contradistinction to the acc. object, and hence those verbs which have a force similar to that of transitives have in common prose become transitive, and now take an acc., while those that have pronounced intransitive nature follow the trend of intransitives, and take a prep. object. In choice language, however, a number of verbs still prefer the gen. object to the acc. or prep. object, and in certain cases the old and new constructions are both used with the same verb with a fine and beautiful shade of meaning. The acc. here represents the object as thoroughly affected by the action, while the gen. sometimes represents the object as suffering only in part from the effects of the action: *Die Spitzhuten haben mir alles genommen,* but *Vnd der Priester sol des bluts nemen vom Schuldopffer* (Leviticus xiv. 14) *And the priest shall take some of the blood of the trespass offering.* Similar to this partitive gen. is the gen. of the goal, which represents the object, not as actually receiving the full force of an activity, but as being the point toward which an activity is directed: *Mit diesem zweiten Pfeil durchschöß ich — Euch,* |

wenn ich mein liebes Kind getroffen hätte, | und Eurer — wahrlich, hätt' ich nicht gefehlt (Schiller's *Tell*, 3, 3). Wer ein Weib ansehst jr (140. b) zu begeren (Matth. v. 28). The old partitive gen. and gen. of goal are now usually replaced by the acc. in plain prose. Sometimes a prep. construction is now used instead of the gen. of the goal; see next paragraph. Sometimes the acc. expresses a material or superficial relation, while in choice language the gen. may denote a deep, inner relation, or be used in figurative or changed meaning: Der Esel kann die Kost heute entbehren, but Mein Haus entbehrt des Vaters. Die Kugel verfehlte ihr Ziel, but Die Rede verfehlte der Wirkung. Das ist einen Taler wert, but Dein Vater ist eines Thrones wert (worthy of). Other shades may arise. The gen. may be used with vergessen when the activity proceeds from an act of the will, while the acc. is employed when the act of forgetfulness is an unconscious and thorough one: Und taten übel vor dem Herrn und vergaßen des Herrn, ihres Gottes, und dienten Baalim und den Gainen (Judges iii. 7, rev. ed.). Und vor dem Einschlafen . . . faltete er die Hände und betete zu ihr, der Verkärten: daß sie in ihrer himmlischen Seligkeit ihres einzigen Sohnes auf Erden nicht vergessen und nicht zugeben möge, er tue etwas, das ihrer unwürdig sei (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 178). Doch auch diese, wie alle Weiber Jerusalems, verschließt sich streng vor dem römischen Manne, so daß, auch wenn ich je meiner Schwüre vergessen könnte, &c. (Heyse's *Maria von Magdala*, 2, 1). But Ich habe das Wort vergessen. When the forgetting is represented as only temporary, and consequently the act as only imperfect, the old partitive gen. is still quite frequent: Lehner aber, der all die Zeit über mit besonderem Fleiße gearbeitet hatte, hatte seines in die Hobelspäne gestellten Kaffees ganz vergessen (Fontane's *Quitt*, chap. ix). [In spite of the word ganz here the forgetting was only temporary, for his mind soon returned to the thought of his coffee.] Es gab Zeiten, in denen sie selbst ihres Kindes vergaß (Schubert's *Refugium peccatorum*, V). Und wenn er eine Minute lang seiner Trauer vergaß, so war ihm das bei Gott nicht zu verdenken (Ganghofer's *Der Dorfapostel*, I). Dabei mußte ich beständig an meine Gabe denken; ich hatte ihrer fast vergessen unter der Geschäftigkeit der letzten Zeit (Anselm Heine's *Eine Gabe*, Den 9. Dezember). The genitive formerly expressed the idea of *deprivation*, *separation*, and traces of this usage survive: Er bedarf des Arztes, der Schonung. The acc. is now also used here. The gen. is preferred to express a deep inner relation: Ich bedarf Geld, but des Trostes.

The distinction between the genitive and a prepositional object lies sometimes in the same direction. The latter by means of its preposition calls attention to the outward direction of the activity, while the genitive may emphasize an inner causal relation between the activity and the object: Über wen lacht man? Über Wilhelm. Aber du SCHN wirst jrer lachen | Und aller Heiden spotten (Psalm lix. 9). In general, however, there is little difference between the gen. and the prep. construction, except that the former is more suitable to a solemn or poetic style. Originally the idea of a goal, as indicated above in another relation, and also that of specification, often lay in the gen., and indeed still lie there half

concealed : (Er) wartet nur eines Winkes [also auf einen Wink] . . . um loszubrechen (Häusser's *Deutsche Geschichte*, 3, 187). Hat nicht Diane, statt erzürnt zu sein, daß sie der blut'gen alten Opfer [gen. of specification] mangelt [now also daß es ihr an den blutigen alten Opfern mangelt], &c. (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 1, 2). The gen. after *walten* to hold sway over, rule over, now largely restricted to poetic language, does not represent the object, as the direct objective point of an activity, but in accordance with an older meaning denotes the sphere where an activity is exerted, and is thus related to the gen. of specification and the gen. of place. The sphere over which the activity is extended is now more commonly expressed by placing *über* (with dat. or acc.) before the noun. Thus, in general, as the force of the gen. is not now clearly felt, prepositions are often used to make more vivid these relations. The employment of the gen. can often be explained only in the light of its history. Earlier in the period the gen. was used unrestrictedly, later it disappeared entirely, or survived in certain meanings (as in *Er spottete über mich*, but *Das spottet jeder Beschreibung*), or in certain authors was retained in its former unrestricted limits.

In case of several compound verbs the gen. is in fact an attributive objective gen., as it modifies the noun element in the compound : Nimm der günstigen Gelegenheit wahr (M.H.G. war *observation*). As the two elements of the compound enter into close relations, the noun often loses its identity, and the compound is felt as a true compound verb and takes an acc. object : Ich habe die Erscheinung wahrgenommen.

Sometimes in case of adjectives and some verbs the acc. has arisen from a misapprehension. The old gen. *es* (see 140. c), which is still often used here, is mistaken for an acc. This leads to the use of the acc. in case of other pronouns, and even in case of nouns. For examples of this acc. see the fourth from the last example in 2. A and also the last one in 3. b, below.

The gen. object is now found in the following groups, which are fairly complete for the present period, but were still fuller in early N.H.G.

1. *Partitive Genitive Object.* This object is used in elevated diction with a few verbs of pronounced transitive nature, much as *of* is used in English with the corresponding group of words. The most common of these German verbs are *bringen* to bring, *essen* to eat, *geben* to give, *gießen* to pour, *pour out*, *haben* to have, *naschen* to nibble at, *sip of*, *nehmen* to take, *senden* to send, *schenken* to pour out, *spenden* to bestow, be lavish with, *trinken* to drink. Exs. : Wer des wassers trinfet | Den wird wider dürsten. Wer aber des wassers trinden wird | das ich im gebe | den wird ewiglich nicht dürsten (John iv. 13-14). Sorgsam brachte die Mutter des klaren herrlichen Weines (Goethe's *H. u. D.*, 1, 166). Es schenkte der Böhme des perlenden Weins (Schiller's *Graf v. Habsburg*). Kaum mag ich des Weines naschen (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Werner's *Lieder aus Welschland*, xi). See also 255. II. 1. H. c. Compare : She gave him of that fair enticing fruit (Milton).

Such verbs, except in a few expressions, now usually take in plain prose the acc. without the article, or, to make prominent the partitive idea, *von* with the dative becomes object, or the real object

is placed in apposition with *etwas*: *Er nahm Brot, or von dem Brot, or etwas Brot*. The partitive gen. objects, *dessen, deren*, are, however, still quite common: *Haben Sie noch Papier?* Ja, ich habe dessen noch. *Haben Sie Federn?* Ja, ich habe deren noch. See also 255. II. 1. H. c.

The partitive idea appears also in the gen. object of a number of the verbs enumerated in 2. A, below.

2. A. *Genitive Object after Intransitives*. The gen. object is used with the following intransitives, or verbs originally intransitive, especially in elevated diction, but other constructions, indicated in parentheses after each verb, are also found, especially in certain meanings of the same word, and are often more common in ordinary prose: *abgehen* (with gen. only in early N.H.G., now with *von* with dat.) to desist from, give up, *abstehen* (with gen. only in early N.H.G., now with *von* with dat.) to desist from, give up, *abwarten* (with acc.; earlier in the period with gen. or dat.) to attend to, *achten* (*auf* with acc., sometimes with simple acc.) to heed, pay attention to, take notice of (in this meaning commonly in the form *beachten*, with acc.), *respect* (in this meaning with acc.), *acht haben*, or in negative form also *gar keine Acht haben* (the gen. common in a few expressions, as *es* [see 140. c] *acht haben*, also elsewhere, but more commonly with *auf* with acc., sometimes with simple acc.) to heed, pay attention to, *bedürfen* (with acc.) to need, require, *begehren* (with acc.; *nach* with dat.) to desire, long for, covet, demand (with acc.), *benötigen*, or less commonly *benöten* (with gen. or acc., both constructions of recent date; for older and still more common construction *benötigt sein* see 3, below) to have need of, need, *brauchen* (with acc.) to need, use, be in need of (with gen.), *gebrauchen* (with acc.) to use, *mißbrauchen* (with acc.) to misuse, *denken* (always with dat. of the person, sometimes with gen. or acc. of the thing, or more commonly with *für* with acc. with the one exception that the gen. is still common in a few expressions, such as *Gott sei es* [old gen.; see 140. c] *gedankt*) to thank for, *denken* (an with acc.) to remember, think of, *gedenken* to mention (with gen.), think of, remember (in the last two meanings with gen. or an with acc.), *entbehren* (with acc.) to be without, miss, *entgelten* (only in early N.H.G., now with acc.) to pay (atone) for, *entraten* (with acc.) to get along without, dispense with, *entsagen* (262. II. A. b) to renounce, give up, *ermüden* (*von* with dat.) to become weary from, *erschrecken* (now with *über* with acc., or *vor* with dat.) to take fright at, *erwähnen* (with gen. or acc., only rarely with *von* with dat.) to mention, *erwarten* (see *warten*, below), *fehlen* or *verfehlen* (both verbs also with acc.) to miss (a mark, road, &c.), fail of, come short of, *frohlocken* (*über* with acc.) to exult at, *fürchten* to fear for (, as in *unser Lebens fürchten* — Josh. ix. 24; now *für unser Leben fürchten*), fear (trans., always with acc.), *gelten* (185. A. I. 6. Note 2), *genesen* to recover from (gen. or *von* with dat.), be delivered of (a child in child-birth, with simple gen.), *genießen* (or *nießen* in early N.H.G.; both also with acc.) to enjoy, partake of, eat (usually with acc.), *gesunden* (now with *von* with dat.) to recover from, *gewahren* (see *wahren*, below), *gewarten* (see *warten*, below), *gewöhnen* (with gen. or acc., earlier in the period and still in poetic language, now except in the adj.

perfect participle [see *gewöhnt* in 3, below] usually replaced by *sich gewöhnen an*, with acc.) to become accustomed to, *harren (auf* with acc.) to wait patiently for, *herrschen (über* with acc., sometimes with simple dat. or acc., with simple gen. only in early N.H.G.) to rule over, *hoffen (auf* with acc.; simple gen. now rare) to hope for, expect, *hohnen* (with acc.) to scoff at, *hohnlachen (über* with acc.) to laugh at in scorn, *hören* (with gen. earlier in the period; for use with dat. see 258. I. A. c) to hear (now with acc.), listen to (i. e. lend ear to, heed, now with *auf* with acc.); *hüten* (with acc.; only in early N.H.G. with simple gen.) to guard, tend (sheep, &c.), *kosten* (earlier in the period with simple gen., now with acc. or sometimes *von* with dat.) to taste (of), *lachen (über* with acc.; *verlachen* to deride, always with acc.) to laugh scornfully at, make light of, *lächeln (über* with acc.) to smile at, *lauern* (usually *auf* with acc.) to lie in wait for, *leugnen* (with acc.; with gen. in early N.H.G.) to deny, *loshen* (259. 23), *mangeln* (in early N.H.G. also with acc., now more commonly *impers.* with *an* with dat.: *Es mangelt mir der nötigen Energie*, or more commonly *an der nötigen Energie*) or *ermangeln* (: *Du ermangelst gänzlich des Fleißes*) to be without, lack, *missen* (with gen. in early N.H.G., now with acc.) to miss (goal, way), be without, miss (notice or feel the absence of; see 1 Kings xx. 39), *pflügen* (with acc.) to attend to, take care of, discharge the duties of (usually with gen.), carry on, give one's self up to (with gen.), indulge in (with gen.), take (gen., as in *der Ruhe, seiner Bequemlichkeit pflegen*), *schonen* (now with acc.; formerly also with dat.) or *verschonen* (with acc.) to spare, use tenderly, *schweigen (von* with dat. or *über* with acc.) to be silent about, *geschweigen* or less commonly *schweigen* (both usually with gen., especially frequent in the infinitive with *zu*) to pass over in silence, say nothing about, *sparen* (with acc.) to spare, *spielen* (formerly with gen. and still occasionally so, as in *Verstecken* or *Versteckens spielen*; now usually with acc.) to play, *spotten (über* with acc.; sometimes with simple dat.; sometimes trans. with acc., hence the biblical expression *Gott läßt sich nicht spotten* *God is not mocked*; the transitive form is usually *verspotten*) to scorn, mock, *verdienen* (with acc.) to be deserving of, *versehen* (see *fehlen*, above), *vergessen* (with acc.; in S.G. and in a less degree in the North also *auf* or *an* with acc., or sometimes *von* with dat.) to be forgetful of, forget, *verlangen* (gen. poet.; for prose construction see 262. II. B. d) to long for, *verleugnen* (sometimes in early N.H.G. with gen., now with acc.) to deny, disown, *vermissen* (with acc., in early N.H.G. also with gen., as in 1 Sam. xx. 18; gen. now rare) to miss, feel the want, absence of, *wahren* to look out for or keep (with gen.), guard or care for (earlier in the period with gen., now with acc.), observe, preserve (with acc.), *gewahren* (now usually with acc.) or *gewahr* (gen. or acc.) *werden* to perceive, *wahrnehmen* to take care of (children, &c.), take advantage of (an opportunity, &c., in this meaning also with acc.), perceive (with acc.), look after (one's interests; with acc.), make good (one's expenses; with acc.), *walten* to discharge the duties of, have charge of, bring to pass (in this meaning now also with acc.), hold sway over (in this meaning with the simple gen., or more commonly with the acc. or dat. after the prep. *über*, sometimes in

poetic style with *ob* with the dat.), warten to await or wait for (in this meaning with gen., or more commonly auf with acc.), attend to (with gen.), care for, look after (in these meanings with gen. or more commonly the acc.), erwarten (with acc.) to await, gewarten (rare ; with gen. or acc.) to await, zürnen (with über with acc. or wegen with gen.) to be angry at (something). Exs. : So laufen wir nach dem, was vor uns flieht, | und achten nicht des Weges, den wir treten (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 2, 1). Ich achte nicht auf dich und deinen Zorn. Großmutter steht ihm bei ; | die, weißt du, achtet nicht dein Zorngeschrei (Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*, 3). Ich achte (respect) ihn, aber ich kann ihn nicht lieben. So, in mich hinein brütend, hatte ich Zettchens Gegenwart und ihres Spiels gar keine Acht mehr gehabt (Spielhagen's *Was will das werden*, I, chap. vii). Denn er glaubt immer noch, ich sei in einem kranken Wahn befangen und müsse, anstatt zu heilen, selbst des Arztes benöten (Anselm Heine's *Eine Gabe*, Den 1. Juli). [Ich] Danke der gütigen Nachfrage (Raabe's *Frühling*, chap. viii). The more common form of the preceding sentence : Ich danke für die gütige Nachfrage. Ihr dank' es (old gen., now felt as an acc. ; see 140. c) . . . ihr danke Reich und Leben (Fulda's *Talisman*, 4, 7). Ich weiß nicht, wie ich dir das danken soll, aber verlaß dich darauf, ich dank' dir's schon einmal (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan*?, iv). Er hat sie auf dem Gewissen, daß er des Meis nicht entsagte, da es Zeit war! (Frenssen's *Die drei Getreuen*, II, 9). Zwei Ruderer ermüdeten der Fahrt (Grillparzer's *Des Meeres und der Liebe Wellen*, 3). Sie erwähnten gewisser Opfer, die Sie bringen mußten — (Baumbach's *Der Schwiegersohn*, X). Der Schnee, der lag, gab gerade Licht genug, um des Weges nicht zu fehlen (Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, IV, 19). Denn die einzelnen Tiere genossen bei den Kadetten eines besonderen Rufes, je nach ihren vermeintlich guten oder bösen Eigenschaften (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, xxxix). Denn jetzt hohnlach' ich deiner (Wildenbruch's *Die Quiltzows*, 3, 14). Ich wil lieber der Thür hüten in meines Gottes hause | denn lange wonen in der Gottlosen Hütten (Psalm Lxxxiv. 11). Er höhnte mir mein Amulett, | hielt nichts von Mitteln ! lachte aller Sprüche ! (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 3, 1). Dort im Sommer, wenn der große | Meerlachs seine Rheinfahrt macht, | lauerte mit scharfem Spieße | sein der allemann'sche Fischer (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Drittes Stück). Auf dem Friedhof pflegt der Totengräber hastig seines Amtes (Ernst Zahn's *Wie dem Kaplan Longinus die Welt aufging*). Des Champagners hatte man nicht geschont (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 233). Ein breitschultriger und kurzhafter Mann von Mitte Dreißig, dessen Stuhhut und hechtgrauer Rock mit grünen Abatten (des Hirschfängers ganz zu schweigen) über seinen Beruf keinen Zweifel lassen konnte (Fontane's *Quitt*, chap. i). Der Park mit seinen tiefen Schatten, den sonnigen Grasplätzen, auf denen wir Haschens und Reisen spielten (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 14). Der Herr hat mein noch nie vergessen, vergiß, mein Herz, auch seiner nicht (Gellert). Wenn sie also gefniet hätte aus Liebe zu ihm, während er fern von ihr weilte und allgemach ihrer vergaß? (Ertl's *Walpurga*). Er hat den Namen des Mannes vergessen. Vergesse nur nicht auf Gures Vaters Süpplein, Jungfer ! (Storm's *Zur Chronik von Grieshuus*, p. 109). Dann vergaß ich auf die Sache (Rosegger's *Geldtragen*). Dann vergesse ich auf alles, und dann spreche ich mit Martha schlesiſch (Paul Keller's *Waldwinter*, xvii). Du vergißt ja ganz aufs

Essen, Oltzchi (Berlepsch's *Vendetta*). Herrgott, die Lorte! Mein vergessen hätten wir jetzt auf die! (delle Grazie's *Sphinx*). Ich habe, glaub' ich, schon wieder an uns beide vergessen (Hirschfeld's *Der junge Goldner*, p. 226). So dachte die Frau . . . | ihrer Ehre zu wahren und doppelt war sie verloren (Goethe). Der weise Talbot, der des Siegels wahren (Schiller's *Maria*, 1, 7). Wahr' deiner Haut (Werner's *Ostsee*, 1, 39). Hätten sie sich alle gehalten wie er und ein Knecht, es wäre mein und meines kleinen Häuschens übel gewahrt gewesen (Goethe's *Götz*, 3, 6). Ich werde ihre Rechte wahren. Den Anstand wahren to observe the decorum, den Schein wahren to save appearances. Sie stirbt vor Ekstase, wenn sie mein gewahrt (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 2, 6). Nehmet der Kinder . . . wahr (Goethe's *Rein. Fuchs*, 3). Nimm der günstigen or more commonly die günstige Gelegenheit wahr. Nemet war der Lilien auff dem selbe (Luke xii. 27). Ich habe an ihm keine Veränderung wahrnehmen können. Er nimmt mein Interesse wahr. Er nimmt seine Auslagen wahr. Wie will ich also meines bitteren Amtes walten und Richter sein? (Lienhard's *König Arthur*, 3). Möge es (140. c) Mithras, der Allgütige, walten! (*Fam. Bl.*, 4, 459, a). Daß (or des) walte Gott! Macht, die seines Schicksals waltete (Freytag's *Bild*, 1, 406). Er wartete des Erfolges seiner Fangvorrichtung (H. Seidel's *Der Luftballon*). Zürnt nicht der dreisten Frage, wie konntet Ihr dieß einsame Leben unter dem wilden Volk ertragen? (Freytag's *Rittmeister*, chap. 3).

a. The gen. object is also found after the following verbs, where, however, it may also be classified as an adverbial gen.: fahren to drive, gehen to go, kommen to come, schleichen to sneak, ziehen to go. Exs.: ein wirtlich Dach | für alle Wandrer, die des Weges fahren (Schiller's *Tell*, 1, 2). Die Knaben gingen verhältnismäßig still ihrer Wege (Oempteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, vii). Laßt jeden seines Pfades gehen. Sachte schlich ich meiner Wege. Sie alle ziehen ihres Weges fort an ihr Geißel. The acc. is also used after these verbs, usually without difference of meaning, but sometimes with a shade of difference. The gen. represents the action as beginning, or as directed toward only a part of the object, while the acc. represents the action as a thorough one, or as extending entirely over the object: Geh deinen Weg Go on your way, keeping to it till you reach the end, but Geh deines Weges Start out on your way. The genitive here is a decaying construction. It is quite common with masculine words in certain set expressions. It is also occasionally found with feminines in a few expressions: seiner Straße ziehen (Tieck). Ich ziehe rüstig meiner Straßen (Uhland). But it cannot be freely used. The simple accusative, though more common than the genitive, has its limitations. The usual mode of expression here is the accusative in connection with an adverb or preposition: Er ging die Straße hinunter. Er kam die Treppe herauf. Er ging die Straße, den Fluß entlang.

b. With leben and sterben the gen. is used in a few set expressions to denote the means or cause: Ich lebe der (or in der) Hoffnung, daß I live in hopes that, &c. Der Gerechte wird seines Glaubens leben (Rom. i. 17). Du aber mußt dußst sterben (Judges xv. 18). Compare the gen. and acc. with sterben in 223. III. a. and 257. 2. A.

B. In changing sentences containing a gen. object into the passive construction the gen. does not become nom., but remains gen. for the same reason that the dat. object remains dat. in changing from the active to the passive (258. 1). The subject of the passive sentence must then become the impers. es, expressed or understood: Man gedenkt meiner They are thinking of me becoming in the

passive *Meiner* wird gedacht, or *Es* wird *meiner* gedacht. Those verbs that also admit of the acc. object in the active may likewise be treated as regular transitives, in which case the acc. of the active becomes nom. in the passive: *Er* erwähnte diesen Umstand, or *dieses* Umstands *He mentioned this circumstance* becoming in the passive: *Dieser* Umstand wurde erwähnt, or *dieses* Umstands wurde erwähnt. In case of those verbs which prefer the prep. object in prose, the impersonal passive must be formed: *Er* spottete über mich *He scoffed at me* becoming in the passive *Es* wurde über mich gespottet, or *Es* wurde *meiner* gespottet.

3. *Genitive after adjectives, adverbs, participles, and nouns* (in connection with a verb). The genitive here denotes a goal, separation, cause, specification, plenty or want, value, or it often has the force of an objective genitive. In earlier periods the genitive was much more common here in most of these categories than it is to-day. Former usage often survives in compounds: *sonnenverbrannt*, *schicksalsschwer*, *sohlrabenschwarz*, *handelsklug*, *geistesabwesend*, *geisteskrank*, *geistesverwand*, *segensreich*, *mannstoll*, &c. In compounds proper we cannot distinguish the syntactical relation, as the modifying component always has the form of the bare stem: *zielsbewußt*, *geldgierig*, &c.

The genitive now stands after the following words in elevated language, and in large part also in common prose, but other constructions, too, are found with the same forms, as is indicated in each case in parentheses: *achtlos* (in choice prose with gen., more commonly *auf* with acc.) heedless of, not paying attention to; *ansichtig* (originally with acc., now also with gen., and perhaps more commonly so), used only in the predicate after *werden* in the meaning *to get sight of*; *bar* (rarely *von* with dat. or *an* with dat.) free from, void of; *bedürftig* in need of; *beflissen* given, devoted to, engaged in the study of; *bejierig* or *gierig* (both with gen. in choice language, more commonly with *nach* with dat., or *auf* with acc.) to be desirous of, eager for; *benötigt* (sometimes with acc.), usually in the predicate after *sein*, to be in want, in need of; *beraubt* deprived of, stripped of, robbed of; *berichtet* or *bericht* (in use earlier in the period; see also 262. III. 1. *k*) well versed in; *bewußt* (sometimes with acc.) conscious of; *bloß* (sometimes *von* with dat.) not furnished with, wanting, free from, exposed to (in this meaning with simple dat.), *eingedenk* or *gedenk* (poet.) mindful of; *erfahren* (gen. earlier in the period, now in with dat.) experienced in, skilled in, versed in; *einig* (des *Preises*, des *Handels*, des *Kaufes* *einig*, elsewhere *über* with acc.) or *eins* (in des *Preises*, *Handels*, des *Kaufes* *eins*) agreed upon; *erfüllt*, see *gefüllt*; *ersättigt* satiated with; *Erwähnung* (sometimes *von* with dat.) *tun* to make mention of: *fähig* capable of; *frei* (gen. earlier in the period, now usually with *von* with dat.) free from; *fröh* enjoying, rejoicing in (the possession of), happy in, usually with *über* with acc. in the meanings *glad of*, *rejoiced at*, *over*; *gefüllt* (gen. poet.; usually with *mit* with dat.) or *erfüllt* (with gen. in a few expressions, or more commonly with *von* or *mit* with dat.) filled with; *geizig* (usually *nach* with dat.) eager after; *gesättigt* (with gen., or perhaps more commonly *von* with dat.) satiated with, tired of; *geständig* (sometimes with acc.) used only with the verb *sein* in the meaning *to confess*, *plead guilty to* (an offence); *gewahr* (gen. or acc.)

used with *werden* in the meaning *to perceive*; *gewärtig* (sometimes the acc.) expecting, on the look-out for; *gewiß* (sometimes with acc.; earlier in the period *von* with dat.) certain of; *gewöhnt* or *gewöhnt* (both more commonly with simple acc., or in case of *gewöhnt* still more commonly with an with acc., *gewöhnt* sometimes with an with acc.) accustomed to; *habhaft* (sometimes with acc.), used with *werden* in the meaning *to get hold of* or *possession of*; *inne* or less commonly *innen* (both forms also with the acc.), used with *werden* in the meaning *to become conscious of*, *perceive*; *Herr* (also *über* with acc.) *sein* to be master of, have the mastery, control of, have the free disposition of (one's time, &c.), *Herr* (also *über* with acc.) *werden* to get the mastery of; *fündig* (now rare) or more commonly *fündig* well acquainted with (a road, &c.), *versied* in; *laß* (poetic) tired of; *ledig* (gen. or *von* with dat.) free from; *leer* (gen. poet.; now usually *von* or *an* with dat.) void of, free from; *loß* (gen. poet., now usually acc.; earlier in the period with *von* with dat. also after *sein* and *werden*, now with *von* with dat. only after other verbs than *sein* and *werden*: *Ich bin ihn loß*, but *Er ist vom Militär loß gekommen*. *Er machte sich von mir loß*) rid of; *mächtig* master of; *Meister* (also *von* with dat., or *über* with acc.) in connection with the verbs *sein* and *werden* to be master of, get the mastery over, have, get the control of, get the better of; *müde* (with gen. or acc.) tired of; *nötig* or *von nöten* (both with gen., or now more commonly acc.), used with *haben* in the meaning *to need*, or not *sein* to be need of, not *haben* to have need of; *quitt* (sometimes with acc., earlier in the period also *von* with dat.) free from, rid of, clear of; *satt* (gen. in choice language, more commonly acc.) satiated with, tired of; *schuldig* (with gen.) guilty of, *unschuldig* (gen. poet., usually *an* with dat.) innocent of; *selig* (*in* with dat. or *durch* with acc.) happy in; *sicher* (only rarely with *von* with dat.) sure of; *teihast* or *teihastig* sharing in; *überbrüssig* (with gen. or acc.) weary of; *überhoben*, used with *sein* in the meaning *to be exempt* or *relieved from*, *be spared the necessity of*; *unachtend* paying no attention to; *ungläubig* (with gen. in biblical language; see Acts xxvi. 19) incredulous with regard to; *verdächtig* suspected of; *vergeßten* forgetful of; *verlustig* forfeiting, losing; *vermutend* or *vermuten* (both usually with acc.), used with *sein* in the meaning *to be expecting*; *versichert* assured of; *voll* (often also with non-inflection of the noun in the sing. and with the dat. in the pl. where the dependent substantive has no inflected modifying word before it, otherwise with simple gen., or *von* [sometimes *mit*] with the dat., sometimes also with simple dat.) or *voller* (with non-inflection of the noun in the sing. when there is no modifying word before it, otherwise with gen.; see 111. 8) full; *wert* worth (in this meaning with acc.), worthy of (with gen.); *wissend* (in poetic language) knowing of, informed concerning; *würdig* (sometimes with acc.) worthy of; *zufrieden* (now usually *mit* [in the eighteenth century also *von*] with dat.) satisfied with. Exs.: *Und zuletzt des Lichts begierig, bist du, Schmetterling, verbrannt*. *Er ist nach Geld begierig*. *Er ist auf den Ausgang begierig*. *Zweifelsud und doch aller Gewißheit erfüllt* (Raabe's *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. xi). *Denn ich hatte nicht nur einen des Lebens ersättigten Greis mit dem weisen Willen*

der Natur übereinstimmend sich von der Erde weg einer unbekannten Ewigkeit zuwenden sehen, &c. (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxxvii). Sie tat meiner, dieses Falles Erwähnung. Sie wurden ja ihrer Liebe nicht mehr froh (Tavote) They surely would never become happy in one another's love again. Ich bin gesättigt des süßen Weins (Halbe's *Lebenswende*, i, p. 20). Ich war mir seines Angriffs gewärtig. Den sind die Hochstasfalkinder gewärtig, ehe sie abziehen (Ernst Zahn's *Menschen*, I). Sie wurden des Verbrechers nicht habhaft. Sie werden ihres Wahnes inne werden (Schiller's *Jungfrau*, 5, 4). Wenn sie würden innen | hier mein seltsames Beginnen (Grillparzer's *Ahnfrau*, 2). Er wurde nicht Herr seiner Leidenschaft. Der Junge bin ich Meister, nicht des Auges (Kotzebue). Vieles Lebens ist jetzt nicht not. Sie hat's (the es an old gen. [140. c], but felt as an acc.) nicht not. (R. Wagner's *Flieg. Holl.*). Nun habt ihr keines Vormunds nötig (Lessing's *Sinnged.*, i, 124), now usually keinen Vormund. Ein Lügner ist der Ehre verlustig. Ein Becken voll Wassers (Wieland). Ein echter Orthodoxer voll Glaubeuseifer, aber auch voll Büchlingen gegen die gute Gesellschaft ist der Hülfsprediger Rohrland in den Stützen der Gesellschaft (Albert Geiger in *Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, 13. Dezbr. 1901). Das Gesichtchen aber strahlte voll eitel Entzücken (H. Hoffmann). Eine Frau begegnete mir mit einem Korbe voll früher Apfel (Immermann). Die Stube war voll dunkelrotem heimlichen Licht (Frenssen). Alles so voller Licht (Lessing). Die Stube war voller Bücher und Altertümer (Novalis). Ein volles, ganz von einer Empfindung volles Herz (Goethe's *Götz*, i, 5). Er hat den Kopf so voll mit seinem Unglück (Fulda's *Die Kameraden*, 2, 4). Dann mach' ich ihn wissend der Zaubermacht, | durch die er sie finden und binden kann (Sudermann's *Die drei Reiherfedern*, i, 2). Auch bin des Dienstes (now mit dem Dienste) ich wohl zufrieden, den sie mir geleistet (Goethe). Ich bin es (gen. still common in this expression) zufrieden. Und bin davon (now damit) wohl zufrieden (id.).

a. Instead of a gen. of a noun or pronoun an infinitive with zu (or more rarely um zu) or a clause is often found with these adjectives: Ich bin froh, Sie zu sehen. Er ist nicht fähig, (um) es zu begreifen. Ich bin froh, daß Sie gekommen sind.

b. The acc. after the above adjectives is more common in case of pronouns than nouns. Especially the neut. acc. es is common even after adjectives, which do not usually admit of the acc.: Wenn ich es ganz und gar überhoben sein könnte! If I could be relieved from it entirely! The es is here in reality the gen. (see 140. c), but is now felt as an acc. The acc. now very commonly used after some of the above adjectives and participles has arisen from this misunderstood pronominal form es, and then spread to other pronouns, and also to nouns: Weislingen: Seid Ihr mich schon müde? Adelheid: Euch nicht sowohl als Guern Umgang (Goethe's *Götz*, 2, 9).

c. The gen. object usually precedes the governing adjective: Sind Sie Ihrer Sache gewiß?

Prepositional Object.

261. In the preceding articles the object of verbs or adjectives is in some simple case form, but it may also be in some case after

a prep., usually, however, with a different shade of meaning or feeling, if the same verb also governs a simple case: *Ich denke dein* *I am thinking of you* is choicer and more expressive than the more common *Ich denke an dich*. Further shades of meaning can be introduced by using different prepositions: *Denke auf deine Rettung* Be thinking of some plan to bring about your rescue. *Ich habe lange über das Rätsel gedacht* I have long pondered over the riddle. Many verbs, adjectives, and participles have an object or objects in a simple case form in some expressions, but have prepositional objects in other expressions, other words have only prep. objects: *Eins bitte ich dich*, but *Ich bitte um Entschuldigung*. Jeder war auf das Äußerste gefaßt.

By glancing at the preceding and following articles it will be seen that verbs which once took an object in a simple case form now often take a prepositional object. The prep. construction has become a marked favorite, and hence the study of the prepositions, their meaning and grammatical use, is a vital one. This subject is treated at considerable length in 225-232.

Double Object.

262. An acc., dat., gen., or prepositional object may not only each be used singly after a verb, but two objects may be employed, one in the acc. to denote the direct object of the verb and one in the simple acc., dat., or gen., or in some case after a prep., to denote a second object, which stands in various relations to the verb or some other word as described below.

I. Accusative of the Thing and Dative of the Person.

This construction is found after a great many verbs, especially those with the general meaning of giving, taking, bringing, sending, commanding, owing, selling, making, preventing, &c., where the accusative denotes the object or thing affected or produced, and the dative the person to whose advantage or disadvantage the action accrues: *Ich schenke Ihnen dieses Buch*. *Er entzieht mir seine Unterstützung* He withdraws his support from me. *Ich verschaffe mir einen Paß*. *Der Duke hat mir den Rock entwendet*. *Ich verdanke dir mein Glück*. *Man trägt ihm die Speisen auf*. *Er macht ihm ein Paar Schuhe*. *Er hat mir viel Verdruss verursacht*. *Sie verwehrten dem Feinde den Übergang* They prevented the enemy from crossing. As in a number of these examples, the verb is often compounded with certain prefixes; see 258. 1. B. a.

The idea of personal interest is prominent in many of these datives, as in the examples given above, but the ideas of a goal, place, position, separation, source are also common, especially after verbs compounded with a preposition: *Er führte uns bewohnten Gegenden zu*. *Er führte die Frage einer neuen Entscheidung entgegen*. *Ich unterwerfe mich blindlings Ihrem Ausspruch*. *Ich unterziehe mich dem schwierigen Geschäft, der Operation*. *Warum entziehst du dich unserem Verkehr?* *Er hat das Gleichnis dem or von (or aus) dem Homer entlehnt*. *Ich*

entnehme (aus) Ihrem Briefe, daß usw. I learn from your letter that, &c. For fluctuation in usage here see *b*, below.

a. The acc. is often replaced by an infinitive with *zu* or by a clause: Man kann den Menschen nicht vermehren, zu denken, was sie wollen. Meine Geschäfte erlauben mir keinen langen Aufenthalt, or Meine Geschäfte erlauben mir nicht, mich lange aufzuhalten, or Meine Geschäfte erlauben (mir) nicht, daß ich mich lange aufhalte.

b. This double object construction is productive, and is growing at the expense of other double object constructions. Thus *gewähren*, which in early N.H.G. belonged to II (as in *Der Herr gewere dich aller deiner bitte* — Psalm xx. 6), now usually belongs here (as in *Der Herr gewähre dir alle deine Bitten*). In a number of cases this change of construction has resulted from a confusion of forms. Thus we often find such expressions as *Unterstütz dir's* [instead of *dich's* = *dich es*], *Madel!* (Beyerlein's *Dämon Othello*, 2, 2). The dative and accusative in such cases originated, perhaps, in such expressions as *Er unterstütz sich's*, where *sich* is in fact an accusative and *es* an old genitive (140. c), but *sich* is construed as a dative and *es* as an accusative in conformity with the familiar dative and accusative construction. Sometimes the thought influences the construction. As the idea of separation is associated with both the dative and the genitive, a number of verbs fluctuate between the dative and genitive: *Du mußt dich des Rauchens entwöhnen*, but also *Wie wir bemüht sind, allem zwecklos Schönen | . . . uns zu entwöhnen* (P. Heyse in *Nord S.*, 28, 65). As *von* also expresses the same idea it is likewise sometimes used alongside of the gen. or dat., or of both, or, as in the following sentence, is preferred in certain expressions: *Der Säugling ist jetzt von der Brust entwöhnt*. Fluctuations between dat. and gen. also occur in the expression of the idea of a goal, as both cases contain this meaning with certain compound verbs: *ein gutes Land, | wohl wert, daß sich ein Fürst sein unterwinde* (Grillparzer's *König Ottokars Glück und Ende*, 3). *Er weigerte nicht, daß auch er demselben Glauben sich unterwinden werde* (Freitag's *Bild.*, I, 256). The dat. is the object of the preposition in the compound, while the gen. is an old *gen. of goal*, which was once more vividly felt than it is to-day. The fluctuation is often explained by the fact that the dat. and the gen. forms are alike in all fem. words, so that in these forms the original construction is lost from view, and a false construction arises which spreads to other words.

This construction of dative and accusative has gained its most complete victory in connection with verbs compounded with a preposition. The dative is here exclusively used in connection with an accusative object, although the force of the preposition requires the accusative: *Man legt dem Stiere das Joch auf*. For other examples see 258. 1. B. *a*. In M.H.G. we find: *die slege* (Schläge), *die man dich an leget*. Here *die* is the object of the verb and *dich* the object of the preposition *an*. To-day the dative is invariably used as the object of the preposition, so that the construction is now conformed to the common dative and accusative type. Outside of this type the dative has not secured so complete a victory. Thus with intransitives where there is no accusative as object of the verb the force of the preposition still asserts itself: *Bin ich ihn angefahren: Was er da beim Herd zu tun hätt'?* (Rosegger's *Martin der Mann*, p. 76). Sie wußte selbst nicht, was sie überkommen war (Storm's *Zur Wald- und Wasserfreude*, p. 188). The idea of an interested person, however, has in large measure weakened the influence of the preposition, and hence the dative is often used here: *Als wär' ein Königreich ihm angefallen* (Wieland's *Geron.*, 388) (more commonly *zugefallen*). *Wie meiner guten Mutter dieser traurige Zustand anfiel, weiß ich nicht* (Gutzkow's *R.*, 2, 117), but also *Plötzlich fiel ihn eine Freude an* (J. Paul's *Tit.*, 4, 44). A number of fluctuations here are given in 259. 1, 2, 3, 4, 32. The force of the preposition was much more vividly felt in early N.H.G., and hence the accusative could then be employed where to-day the dative is invariably used: *welche nicht freiet | die*

forget was **den** Herrn angehört | das sie heilig sey | beide am Leibe vnd auch am Geist. Die aber freiet | die forget was **die** Welt angehört (1 Cor. vii. 34).

II. Accusative of the Person and Genitive of the Thing.

A. In this construction the accusative denotes the person directly affected, and the genitive expresses the idea of cause, means, removal, separation, deprivation, a goal, specification, or indicates a person or thing related in various other ways to the activity implied in the verb: Sie erfreut sich des Geschenks She is rejoicing over (on account of) her present. Sie schämt sich ihres Vaters. Deines Schwerts wirst du dich nähren (Gen. xxvii. 40, revised ed.). Man verwies ihn des Landes They banished him from the land. Der Fürst hat ihn des Amts entsetzt The prince has put him out of office. Er befließt sich der Kürze He aims at brevity. Ich werde mich des Erfolges (gen. of specification; or wegen des Erfolges, or über den Erfolg) vergewissern. The genitive object can also be replaced by a clause or an infinitive phrase: Es reut mich der That, or daß ich es getan habe, or es getan zu haben.

In a few cases both objects represent things; see haben and wissen in *a*.

This construction is formed after the following groups of verbs:

a. The following decreasing list of personal verbs, which now frequently admit also of or prefer a prepositional or some other construction instead of the gen., or have become obsolete, as indicated in parentheses after each verb: anklagen to accuse of; anmuten (early N.H.G.; later einem etwas anmuten; now einem etwas zumuten) to expect of, but dieses Mädchen mutet mich an *This girl pleases me*; anschuldigen (formerly also sometimes with acc. of thing and dat. of person) to accuse of; belehren (now usually über w. acc.; earlier in the period also von w. dat.) to instruct concerning; benehmen (more commonly einem etwas benehmen) to take something away from one, free one from something; berauben to rob, deprive of; bereben (see III. 1. *h*, below); berichten (see III. 1. *k*, below); bescheiden (über w. acc.) to apprise one of, instruct concerning; beschuldigen to accuse of; bezichtigen (formerly also mit with dat.) to accuse of, charge with; bitten (w. gen. in earliest N.H.G.; now um w. acc.; see also III. 1. *a*, below) to ask for; entbinden (von w. dat.) to release from; entblößen (von w. dat.) to strip of, bare of; enterben (von w. dat.) to disinherit; erheben (sometimes simple dat. or von w. dat.) to relieve from; entleiden (sometimes von w. dat.) to divest of; entladen (von w. dat.) to free from; entlassen (aus or von w. dat.) to discharge from, release from; entlasten (von w. dat.) to free from; entledigen (von or aus w. dat.) to free from; entsetzen (occasionally von w. dat.) to rob of, depose from; entübrigen to relieve from, now little used and when employed usually found in the perf. participle with some form of sein, as entübrigt sein to be relieved from, be rid of; entwehren (gen. or more commonly einem etwas entwehren; both constructions early N.H.G., now obs.) to rob of; entwöhnen (von w. dat., sometimes w. simple dat.) to wean away from, disaccustom to; erfreuen (now usually mit w. dat.) to rejoice, delight, or gladden with or by

means of; erinnern (now usually *an w. acc.*) to remind of; erledigen (*von or aus w. dat.*) to free from; erlassen (now *einem etwas erlassen*) to release from; ermahnen to exhort to (usually *zu w. dat.*), remind of (*gen. or an w. acc.*); erretten (early N.H.G., now *von or aus w. dat.*) to save or rescue from; fragen (*w. gen.* in early N.H.G., now *nach w. dat.*, or *um w. acc.*; see also III. 1. *b*, below) to inquire after, ask for; freisprechen (usually *von w. dat.*) to acquit of; gemahnen to remind one of (a promise, duty, &c.), remind one of (i.e. put one in mind of; here more commonly *an w. acc.*, see also *c* and *B. d*, below); gewähren (in early N.H.G. and as late as Goethe; see Ps. xx. 6; now *w. dat.* of person and *acc.* of thing) to grant; haben in the expressions *es* (old *gen.*, for which see 140. *c*, now usually construed as an *acc.*, and hence in case of other words replaced by an *acc.*) *nicht Wort haben* not to admit it, *es nicht Hehl haben* (now also *kein Hehl daraus machen*) to make no secret of it; lösen (now *von or aus w. dat.*) to free from; losprechen (*von w. dat.*) to acquit of; mahnen (usually *w. preps.*) to remind of (*an w. acc.*), to dun for (*um or wegen*), to urge to (*zu*); sichern (Schiller's *Tell*, 3, 3) to assure of; strafen (now rare except in the set expression *jemanden Lügen strafen* to give one the lie, where *Lügen* though *gen. pl.* is now usually felt as an *acc. pl.*); überführen to convict of; überheben to relieve from, spare one (the trouble, &c.) of; überweisen to convict of, convince of (in this meaning *von w. dat.*); überzeugen (usually *von w. dat.*) to convince of; unterrichten and unterweisen (see III, 1, *f*, below); verdächtigen to suspect of; verjagen (now *von or aus w. dat.*) to drive out of; vergewissern (*über w. acc.*, *von w. dat.*, or *wegen w. gen.*) to assure of (the truth of a statement, of the existence of some state of things, &c.); verklagen to accuse of; versichern to assure of (one's friendship, &c.); verweisen (*aus w. dat.*) to banish from; wissen in the expression *es* (old *gen.*—see 140. *c*—now felt as an *acc.*, hence in case of other words sometimes replaced by the *acc.*; now more commonly replaced by *für* with the *acc.*) *einem Dank wissen* to be grateful to some one for something; würdigen to deem worthy of; zeihen to accuse of. Exs.: *Ich will dich eines Bessern belehren* I'll teach you better than that. *Ein Liebchen . . . , welches zwar nur von weltlicher Liebe und Torheit handelte, mich aber doch zugleich aller Furcht und Unruhe benahm* (R. Huch's *Teufeleien*, p. 46). *Ich entbinde Sie dieser Pflicht, or von dieser Pflicht.* *Die Freier Helenas ihres Eides zu gemahnen* (Schwab's *Sagen*, II, 18). *Ich gemahne dich an dein Versprechen* (ib., I, 275). *Er überhebt mich der Mühe* He saves me the trouble. *Dir aber werden wir es Dank wissen* (Heyse's *Maria von Magdala*, 2, 5). *Ich weiß dir deine Freigebigkeit großen Dank* (Alex. König, 1001 *Nacht*, II, p. 15). *Ich weiß dir für die Gabe Dank.*

b. The following list of reflexives, which now sometimes admit also of or prefer a prepositional or some other construction instead of the *gen.*, or have become obsolete as indicated in parentheses after each verb: *sich abtun* to free one's self from, renounce, give up; *sich anmaßen* (now more commonly *w. dat.* of reflexive pronoun and *acc.* of the thing) to arrogate to one's self; *sich anmuten* (Wieland's *Geron.*, 379; now obs.) to expect or try to get; *sich annehmen* to interest one's self in or for; *sich bedanken* (now *für w. acc.*) to thank

for; *sich bedenken* to bethink one's self of; *sich bedienen* to make use of; *sich befahren* to fear, now obs.; *sich befeissen* (or in early N.H.G. *fleissen*; see 2 Macc. xv. 12) or *sich befleißigen* (or in early N.H.G. *fleißigen*; see Rom. xii. 17) to apply one's self to; *sich befürchten* (the reflexive verb now replaced by the trans. *befürchten*, w. acc. object) to fear; *sich begeben* to renounce, waive, to strip or deprive one's self of, refrain from; *sich behelfen* (now mit w. dat.) to get along, through with; *sich bemächtigen* to take possession of; *sich bemessern* to seize on, overcome, take possession of; *sich bereuen* (see III. 1. h, below); *sich berühmen* (Fontane's *Quitt*, chap. 7), now usually replaced by *sich rühmen*; *sich bescheiden* (now mit w. dat.) to content one's self with; *sich beschweren* (now über w. acc.) to complain of; *sich bessern* (gen. in *sich eines Besseren besinnen* to think better of something, to bethink one's self better; *sich eines anderen besinnen* to change one's mind, elsewhere gen. or auf w. acc.) to call to mind, think of, recollect; *sich besorgen* (vor w. dat.; now little used) to fear; *sich bessern* (now durch w. acc.) to improve; *sich bestreben* to strive after; *sich entäußern* to rid one's self of, give up, sell, transfer, renounce; *sich nicht entblößen* to be so bold as to, dare; *sich entbrechen* (rare) to refrain from; *sich enthalten* (sometimes von w. dat.) to abstain or refrain from; *sich entleiden* to divest one's self of; *sich entladen* to ease one's self of; *sich entlasten* (von w. dat.) to free one's self from; *sich entledigen* to rid one's self of, perform (one's duty); *sich entringen* (usually w. dat.) to disengage one's self from, free one's self from; *sich entsagen* (sometimes von w. dat.; the reflexive is now replaced by the simple verb *entsagen* w. dat. or sometimes auf w. acc.; earlier in the period and occasionally still also w. simple gen.) to renounce; *sich entschlagen* to free one's self from, banish (care, thoughts, &c.); *sich entschuldigen* (now usually wegen w. gen.) to excuse one's self on account of; *sich entsetzen* (usually vor w. dat. or über w. acc.) to be terrified at; *sich entsinnen* (auf w. acc.) to recollect, call to mind; *sich entwehren* = *sich erwehren* though not so common, sometimes with dat. of the reflexive and acc. of the thing, in rare instances with acc. of the reflexive and dat. of the thing when = *sich entziehen*; *sich entwöhnen* (von w. dat.; sometimes w. simple dat.) to disaccustom one's self to; *sich entziehen* (usually dat., sometimes von w. dat.) to withdraw from; *sich erbarmen* (über w. acc.; see also B. d, below) to take pity on; *sich erschrecken* to have the impudence to; *sich erfreuen* (an w. dat.) to be delighted with, rejoice in, over, enjoy; *sich erheben* (Goethe's *Rein. F.*, 5; now obs.) to boast of; *sich erholen* to seek or apply for (advice, &c.; here also w. dat. of the reflex. pronoun and acc. or gen. of the thing), retrieve (, as *sich seines Schadens erholen* to retrieve his loss, usually, however, *sich von seinem Schaden an [einem andern, &c.] erholen*), recover from (sickness, &c.; here sometimes w. gen., but usually von w. dat.); *sich erinnern* (most commonly gen.; sometimes acc. or dat. of the reflexive and acc. instead of gen.; frequently an w. acc., in S.G. often auf w. acc.; also as in English: etwas [acc.] erinnern to remember something; see exs.) to remember; *sich erkühnen* to make bold; *sich erkundigen* (usually nach w. dat.) to inquire after; *sich erledigen* to rid one's self of; *sich ernähren*, see *nähren*, below; *sich*

ersättigen (more commonly an or mit w. dat.) to satisfy one's desire for; sich ersehen (more commonly sich [dat.] seinen Vorteil, &c. ersehen) to perceive, look out for, avail one's self of; sich erwägen (2 Cor. i. 8; now obs.) to give up, renounce, despair of; sich erwehren to ward off, refrain from, resist; sich freuen (also with preps.: Man freut sich über einen Gegenstand, über eine Person, über das Geschehene, an dem Gegenwärtigen, auf das Künftige) to rejoice in, over, take a pleasure in (a thing, the idea of, thought of); sich fürchten (vor w. dat.; now with simple gen. only in the expression sich der Sünde fürchten to be afraid of committing the sin of — see ex. below) to fear; sich (ge)brauchen to use and sich mißbrauchen to misuse, both reflexives now replaced by the transitives gebrauchen and mißbrauchen w. acc. object; sich getrauen (see 259. 14); sich getrösten to expect confidently, comfort one's self with (also an or mit w. dat.); sich gewärtigen (or sich [dat.] + acc.) to expect; sich härmern (wegen w. gen., or über or um w. acc.) to worry about, grieve about, be annoyed at, by; sich lohnen (or verlohnen) to reward, be worth, be rewarded by; sich mäßigen (now in w. dat.) to be temperate in; sich nähren or ernähren (both earlier w. simple gen., but now usually mit or von w. dat., or durch w. acc.) to feed, live upon, make one's livelihood by; sich rühmen (wegen w. gen., sometimes mit or von w. dat.) to boast of; sich sättigen (now an, mit, or sometimes von w. dat.) to appease (one's hunger, &c.) with; sich schämen (wegen w. gen.) to be ashamed of; sich scheuen (usually vor w. dat.) to be shy of, shrink from; sich schmeicheln (w. dat. or acc. of the reflex. pronoun and w. gen. of the thing or more commonly mit w. dat.) to flatter one's self with; sich trösten to rely on, content one's self with, rejoice in, console one's self about (über w. acc.), find comfort in (an, mit, durch); sich überheben to elevate one's self above others on account of, spare one's self (the trouble, &c.); sich überreden (see III. 1. i, below); sich unterfangen to dare to undertake; sich unterstehen to be so bold as to; sich unterwinden (see also I. b, above) to dare to undertake, assume the charge, care of, adopt; sich unterziehen (gen. or more commonly dat. of the thing) to undertake, undergo (an operation, &c.); sich verantworten (usually wegen w. gen.) to justify one's self concerning; sich vergewissern (also wegen w. gen., or über w. acc., or von w. dat.) to assure one's self of (the truth of a statement, &c.); sich verleugnen (now simple leugnen with acc.) to deny, deny the existence of; sich vermessen to dare; sich vermuten (earlier in the period sich eines Dinges zu einem vermuten, now ein Ding von einem vermuten, sich [dat.] etwas vermuten, often without the reflexive: etwas vermuten) to expect, suppose; sich versehen (sich eines Dinges [or acc.] zu [or von] einem versehen; or sich [dat.] ein Ding von (zu) einem versehen) to expect something confidently of one; sich versichern to make sure of, seize, convince one's self of; sich verstehen (Acts xxv. 20; now usually auf w. acc.) to understand; sich vertrösten (2 Chron. xxxii. 10; now rare) to put reliance on, trust in or to; sich verwundern (Luke ii. 47; usually über w. acc.) to be surprised or astonished at; sich verrägen (now little used except in perfect participle; see 199. 2nd Division, 5) to dare, venture upon, renounce, give up, do without; sich verzeihen to renounce, give up, now obs. in this meaning and construction; sich wehren to defend; sich weigern to refuse; sich wundern (Luke iv. 22; usually über w. acc.)

to be surprised. Exs.: Damit setzt man sich aber ins Unrecht, wo man vorher im Recht war und begibt sich so seiner besten Waffen (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, lxxii). Ich beuge mich (refrain from) jedes Urtheils. Sie haben an mir ein Beispiel, wie man sich selbst solcher Fesseln entringen kann (Franz's *Der Gott des alten Doktors*, p. 130). Ich erinnere mich der Worte. Ich erinnere mich an ihn. Sieh mal, Jürgen, du erinnerst unser Zusammentreffen im Garten (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. 24). Darf ich noch einer Bitte mich erlauben? May I be so bold as to make another request? Endlich als er sich des ersten Schmerzes ersättigt, erhob er sich, noch vom Schluchzen erschüttert, und suchte (L. Forster's *Die Flinte von San Marco*, xiii, Deutsche Rundschau, April 1896). Solcher Ehre ersättigt (H. Hoffmann's *Falscher Bogislaw*). Er wird sich seines Vorteils über uns ersehen (Goethe's *Götz*, 2, 9). Ich freue mich seines Glücks. Ich fühlte mich so glücklich, daß ich mich der Sünde fürchtete, noch glücklicher werden zu wollen I felt so very happy that I was afraid of committing the sin of desiring to be still happier. Wer sich des Kluges härmet, | der mag ins Kloster geh'n (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Lieder jung Werners, VI). Es lohnt sich der Mühe (also nom. die Mühe) nicht. Des bloßen Hinstarens lohnte sich doch die Mühe des Weges aus deinem weichen Bett nicht (Raabe's *Unruhige Gäste*, chap. 6). Seines Fleißes darf sich jedermann rühmen. Formerly: Ich hätte mich dessen gar nicht vermutet I should not have supposed that, but now: Ich hätte (mir) das gar nicht vermutet. Einer solchen Aufnahme hatte sich der arme Beter zu der reichen Sippschaft seines Weibes nicht versehen The poor creature had not expected such a reception from the rich relatives of his wife. Ich hatte mich eines Besseren zu Ihnen versehen I had expected something better of you. Das hätte ich mir von (zu) dir nicht versehen. Man wehrt sich seiner Haut One defends his own life. Sie weigerte sich des gebotenen Sitzes She refused the proffered seat.

c. A few impersonal verbs belong here: ahnden (only early N.H.G. here; see also 258. I. A. d) to have a presentiment of, dauern (only early N.H.G. here, now only according to B. d, below) to pity, denken or gedenken (both earlier in the period here; for present construction see B. d, below) to remember, eseln (perhaps more commonly with dat. of the personal pronoun: Wenn ihm beinahe des ganzen Lebens eselt—Lessing; for acc. here see Lev. xxvi. 44) to loathe, be disgusted at, erbarmen (also according to b, above) to pity, freuen (also according to b, above) to rejoice, gebrechen (here only rarely even in early N.H.G., as the nom. had already supplanted the gen. according to B. d, below; also differing from other words in this list in that the dat. of the person or thing interested is always used instead of the acc.) to be lacking, wanting, gelüsten or lüsten to covet, lust after, gemähen to put one in mind of, seem to one like, remind one of (in this meaning the gen. is now more commonly replaced by an w. acc.), jammern to grieve, pity, reuen or gereuen to repent, rue, verdrießen (now rarely here; the gen. now usually replaced by the nom. according to B. d, below) to vex, verlangen (rarely here; for usual construction see B. d, below) to long for, wundern (here in the poetic style, usually according to b, above) to be stricken with astonishment at, be surprised at. The subject es is expressed or understood: Mich antet [ahndet] keines

Guten nit (H. Sachs). Es dauret mich seiner (Stieler), or now usually Er dauert mich I pity him. Mich denkt des Ausdrucks noch recht wohl (Lessing's *Nathan*, 2, 2). Mich freut des verwegenen Entschlusses (J. H. Voss). Benan den Schriftgelehrten vnd Apollon fertige ab mit vleiß | auf das jnen nichts (in fact a gen. but soon felt as a nom.) gebreche (Titus iii. 13). Laß dich nicht gelüsten deines Nehesten Weibs (Exod. xx. 17). Es gemanet mich der welt wie eines hawfälligen hauses (Luther's *Tischreden*, 53^b). Laß dich nicht gereuen der Tränen! (Geibel's *Ged.*, III, p. 107). Vnd da er das Volk sahe | jamert in desselbigen (Matt. ix. 36). Des wundert ihn gar mächtiglich (Wieland). This construction is often in common prose replaced by others; see B. d, below.

B. The different constructions in A are not so common now as in early N.H.G., and are in instances now confined to elevated discourse. In common prose they are often replaced by the following constructions, but sometimes the old and the new constructions exist side by side with or without a different shade of meaning.

a. In a number of cases the acc. of the person and the gen. of the thing can be replaced by the dat. of the person and the acc. of the thing: Dessen versichere ich Sie I assure you of that, or Daß versichere ich Ihnen, or with a clause: Ich versichere Sie or Ihnen, daß ich es gesehen habe. See also 1. b, above, and 259. 35.

b. The old gen. es (see 140. c) still occurs in a number of idiomatic expressions, and, not being any longer understood, has been construed as a nom. or acc. neuter. This false conception has led to the use of the nom. and acc. of other words, where the gen. should stand, and has thus given rise to several common but in fact erroneous expressions: Es (gen., but felt as a nom.) or das (instead of dessen) nimmt mich Wunder (nom.) That surprises me, or literally according to the original genitive construction: Wonderment seizes me on account of it. Das (instead of dessen) versichere ich Sie.

c. In a number of cases, as can be seen in the remarks in parentheses in A, above, the gen. is usually in prose replaced by a prep. construction. Also the prep. construction can be used with verbs which usually take the gen., if it is desired to express some different shade of meaning. Thus sich erfreuen w. gen. denotes possession, while w. an it denotes a lively interest or pleasure in something: Ich erfreue mich einer guten Gesundheit I enjoy (have) good health. Ich habe mich recht an ihm erfreut I was delighted with him.

d. The gen. in the important construction in A. c is not now common in prose. Instead of the gen. we now find the nom., which thus becomes subject in the place of the impersonal es: Vnd eßet mich jr nicht also | das mit jnen aus sein solt' (Lev. xxvi. 44), but Weil ihn das nackte Schauspiel eßte (C. F. Meyer's *Gustav Adolfs Page*). Es erbarmt mich seiner, or more commonly Er erbarmt mich, or still more frequently according to A. b: Ich erbarme mich seiner or über ihn I pity him. Mich freut dessen, or more commonly Das freut mich, or according to A. b: Ich freue mich dessen. Da meiner Leuchte das Öl gebrach (C. F. Meyer's *Nov.*, I, 253), or Da es meiner Leuchte an Öl (dat.) gebrach. Die Mittel dazu gebracht ihm (Jensen's *Die Kinder vom Oedacker*, p. 265). The sentence from Luther's *Tischreden*

given in A. c would now read: Die Welt gemahnt mich (also mir) wie ein haufälliges Haus, or more commonly Die Welt gemahnt mich an ein haufälliges Haus, or sometimes w. acc. of the person and gen. of the thing: Daß, wenn dein Herz | der Stunde dich gemahnt, du sagen kannst, | ich weiß von ihr nichts (Wildenbruch's *König Laurin*, p. 76). Mich (occasionally mir) gereut die Lat., der getane Schritt. Mich jammert nur der Vater (Schiller's *Tell*, I, 4).

The impersonal construction, however, is still quite common after gelüsten and lüsten (both sometimes w. dat. of the person instead of the acc.), verlangen (w. acc., also dat.), and ekefen, but with a prepositional object instead of a gen.: Es gelüftet die Frau nach dem Obst. Also w. personal construction: Ich gelüfte nach dem Obst. Mich verlangt nach dir. Wenn du wüßtest, wie mir gerade danach verlangt! (Fontane's *Effi*, chap. 10). Verlangen sometimes takes a gen. object; see 260. 2. A. Mir (or also mich) ekeft vor etwas (dat.), or now also ich ekefe mich vor etwas (dat.) or an etwas (dat.: Er blickte sich wie ein Verirrter im großen Raume um mit all den Spuren des gestrigen Gelages und ekefte sich daran — Schulze-Smidt's *Denk' ich an Deutschland in der Nacht*, I). An infinitive or a clause may replace the prep. object: Es lüftete sie, einen Schmetterling zu fangen (P. Heyse). Es verlangt einem allmählich, daß Sie die Stille wieder unterbrechen (T. Storm an G. Keller, 13. September 1883).

After denken and denken both the acc. and gen. construction and that with the nom. and acc. have, perhaps, disappeared, though both are found earlier in the period. The dat. of the personal pronoun is now usually found instead of the older acc., but also this construction is now rare: Mir denkt's kaum, daß ich sie einmal sah (Mörike). Gedenkt dir's noch, wie uns nach Friedrich's Krönung | die Römer hart am Tiber überfallen? (M. Greif's *Heinrich der Löwe*, 3, 2).

Note. Sometimes erbarmen takes the dat., especially in Austrian authors: Mir erbarmt sie, so oft ich sie seh' (Sophie von Kluenberg). In N.H.G. jammern may also take a dat.: ein vernünft'g Weibsbild, dem das Glend jammerte (Raabe's *Alte Nester*, chap. ix).

C. Of the constructions in A only a can be transferred to the passive. Then the acc. of the person becomes nom. and the gen. of the thing remains: Er beraubte mich aller meiner Hoffnungen becoming in the passive Ich wurde aller meiner Hoffnungen beraubt. The nom. may become an acc. object: Nur ein paar Mal meinte ich das scharfe S vor einem anderen Konsonanten zu vernehmen, dessen ich selbst freilich mich längst entwöhnt glaubte (T. Storm).

III. Double Accusative.

A double accusative is found in the following constructions:

1. *Accusative of the person and accusative of the thing.* This construction is now limited to the following verbs: bitten to ask (a favor), beschwören to implore, fragen to ask (a question), abhören, überhören, or verhören to hear recite, hören (especially in the set expression einen, also einem die Weichte hören) to hear, heißen to bid, bid to do, kosten to cost, lehren and in early N.H.G. unterrichten to teach, führen and leiten

to lead, lenken to guide, bereben to persuade, überreden to persuade, zeihen to accuse, berichten to inform, sich unterstehen (with acc. of the reflexive and the acc. of the thing) to be so bold, most of which admit of other constructions, hence are treated below separately.

a. bitten has two accusatives only when the thing is a neut. pronoun or a numeral, otherwise the *thing* is in the acc. after the prep. *um*: Bitte mich alles in der Welt, nur das nicht. Eins bitte ich dich One thing I ask of you. Er bittet mich um eine Gefälligkeit. In poetry the simple acc. of the thing is sometimes used instead of *um* with acc., when the acc. of the person is not expressed: Ich bitte nicht Gnade (Klopstock). Sometimes also in terse vigorous prose: Reiten Sie zur Fabrik und bringen mir — ich bitte flotte Gangart — Bericht (Lilientron's *Kriegsnovellen*, Anno 1870, Der Richtungspunkt). According to II. A. *a.* above, bitten was in early N.H.G. used with an accusative of the person and the genitive of the thing. The old genitive construction survives in case of *alles* and *eins*, as found in the first two examples given above, but these forms are now felt as accusatives.

Beschwören has the same limited use of the double acc. as bitten: Was ich dich jüngst so heiß beschworen, o mache den Propheten stumm! (Lenau).

b. fragen has in a few set expressions, especially such as contain a neut. demon. or indef. pronoun, two accusatives, the acc. of the person and the acc. (in early N.H.G. also the gen., as in earlier periods) of the thing, but more commonly, aside from these set expressions, the thing is in the dat. after the prep. *nach* after, *concerning*, or in the acc. after the prep. *um* for: Fragte er dich das? Er fragte mich wenig. Er fragte mich etwas. Ich habe Sie verschiedenes zu fragen (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, 2, 19). Ich fragte ihn nach seinem Namen I asked him his name. Ich fragte ihn nach der Ursache. Ich fragte ihn um Rat. In early N.H.G. the prep. *von* was also used here: Und wenn die Leute am selben ort fragten von seinem Weibe | so sprach er (Genesis xxvi. 7). The simple acc. and the construction with *nach* are, however, sometimes used with a different shade of meaning. The acc. of the thing asks for a formal statement or explanation of some problem or task, not for information, but to ascertain whether the one questioned is informed, while the dat. after *nach* asks for information about something: Der Lehrer fragt den Schüler die Vokabeln, die Regeln, die Jahreszahlen The teacher is asking the pupil to give the vocabulary, rules, dates. Ich fragte ihn nach dem Weg I asked him the way. The passive of this construction is formed as in *c.*

c. The words abhören, überhören, verhören to hear recite, hören to shrive, have a double construction — the acc. of the thing and either the dat. or the acc. of the person: Der Lehrer hat dem Schüler (or sometimes also den Schüler) die Aufgabe, die Vokabeln abgehört (or überhört, or verhört) The teacher has heard the pupil recite the exercise, vocabulary. Der Herr überhört die Kinder ein auswendig gelerntes artiges Gedicht (Goethe's *Wanderj.*, 3, 10). Der Priester hört einen (sometimes also einem) (die) Beichte. Hören is also sometimes used with a double accusative in its primary meaning: Höre mich noch ein paar Worte (Goethe). The acc. Worte is an adverbial acc. of extent (223. iv. 2. A).

Überhören, verhören, and fragen may form a passive in the following ways, which are without material difference of meaning. The acc. of the person becomes nom. and the acc. of the thing may either remain acc., or may form a prep. phrase with nach in case of fragen, and with über in case of all three words: Diesen Abschnitt sind wir gar nicht gefragt, verhört worden, or Nach diesem Abschnitt sind wir gar nicht gefragt worden, or Über diesen Abschnitt sind wir gar nicht gefragt, überhört, verhört worden. Instead of these different constructions the acc. of the thing of the active may become nom. in the passive, and the dat. of the person remain dat.: Dieser Abschnitt ist uns gar nicht abgefragt, abgehört, überhört worden.

d. Heißen cannot freely take an acc. of the person and also of the thing, but is limited to an acc. of the person and a neut. acc. of a pronoun, or to an acc. of the person and an infinitive: daß du mir Gehorsam schuldig bist in allem, was ich dich heiße (Schiller's *Räuber*, 4, 2). Jeden Mord, den du mich begehren heißt (id., 3, 2). Liebe Laura! Du kannst mich das heißen? Ich heiße ihn eilen. The acc. of the person is now, perhaps, more commonly replaced by the dat., where the object of the thing is not an infinitive: Was ein evangelischer Geistlicher einem andren heißen konnte, konnte er auch selber tun (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, VIII), but usually Ich habe dich das tun heißen. In the latter case the dat. of the person is also sometimes found: Wann hieß ich dir die Schrift an Burleigh geben? (Schiller's *M. Stuart*, 5, 14). In the passive the person is usually in the dat. and the thing in the nom.: Das ist dir geheissen worden. Es ist dir geheissen worden, das zu tun.

e. kosten (see 259. 21. B).

f. lehren (and sometimes incorrectly lernen = lehren) admits of the acc. of the thing and either acc. or dat. of the person, the latter (dat.) less frequently in early N.H.G., but now gaining ground: Sie lehrte ihn or ihm kleine Lieder. Die Kunst ist nicht gering zu achten, einem jungen intelligenten Menschen von zwölf Jahren Dinge zu lehren, die man bereits seit langer Zeit wieder vergessen hat (H. Seidel's *Die Schleppe*, Idylle). Der kleine Sylvester, dem die Mutter selbst Lesen und Schreiben lehrte (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, vi). The infinitive may replace the acc. of the thing; see 185. B. I. 2. c. Also a clause may replace the acc. of the thing: Er lehrte ihm, daß jeder Gegenstand seinen genau vorgeschriebenen Platz hatte (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, xxvi).

In the passive this construction assumes different forms: (1) The acc. of the person of the active construction becomes here nom., and the acc. of the thing remains acc.: Ich werde das nicht gelehrt. (2) The acc. of the thing becomes nom. and the acc. of the person remains acc.: Das wird mich nicht gelehrt. (3) The acc. of the thing becomes nom. and the dat. of the person remains dat.: Das wird mir nicht gelehrt. The last construction is now much more common than the others. A clause may replace the nom.: Mir ist gelehrt worden, daß dies meine Pflicht sei.

In early N.H.G. unterrichten and unterweisen to teach, instruct, might take either a double acc. or an acc. (in passive a nom.) of the person and a gen. of the thing: daß er sie die Wort des Gesetzes unterrichtet (Neh. viii. 13). Auf daß du gewissen grund erfarest der Lere | welcher (in revised

ed. in welcher) du unterrichtet bist (Luke i. 4). Er wird in unterweisen den besten weg (Psalm xxv. 12). Older usage is still occasionally found: Gott habe den apostolischen Vater des rechten Weges unterwiesen (*Rundschr.*, 2, 5, 220). The acc. or gen. of the thing is now usually replaced by a prepositional construction: Er unterrichtet uns im Französischen. Ich wurde davon unterrichtet I was informed with regard to it, It came to my knowledge. Er hat seinen Enkel im Lesen unterwiesen.

g. Führen, leiten, and lenken take an acc. of the person and an acc. of the way: Er führt mich diesen Weg. Zanthé, komm und leite mich den Pfad (Grillparzer's *Des Meeres und der Liebe Wellen*, 4). Wollt ihr nun mein als einer Frau gedenken, | lenksam dem Zaum, so daß kein Stachel not, | will freudig ich die Ruhmesbahn euch lenken (id., *Libussa*, 1). In the passive the acc. of the person becomes nom. and the acc. of the way remains: Ja, ja, wir werden eben unerforschliche Wege geführt (Raabe's *Schüdderump*, chap. xxxvi).

h. Bereden to make believe something false often has a pronominal acc. of the person and the acc. of a thing instead of the older and more correct acc. of the person and gen. of the thing: Mich wollt ihr das bereben? (Schiller's *Don Carlos*, 3, 4). We sometimes find the dat. of the person here and the acc. of the thing: Es (das Herz) läßt sich alles bereben, was Ihrer Einbildungskraft ihm zu bereben einfällt (Lessing's *Samps.*, 2, 3). Bereden to persuade takes the acc. of the person and the prep. zu: Er beredete ihn dazu. In early N.H.G. the gen. of the thing was used instead of both the acc. and the prep. construction. In the meaning to talk over, discuss bereden takes a simple accusative: Er und sie allein | bereben sie's (Hofmannsthal's *Elektra*, p. 15).

i. Überreden to persuade usually has the acc. of the person and the prep. zu: Er hat mich zu der Sache überredet. Earlier in the period we find the acc. of the person and the gen. of the thing: Ich kann mich dessen nicht überreden (Adelung). The double acc. is also frequent: Der Mensch ist gemacht, daß man ihn das Abenteuerlichste überreden kann (Goethe's *Werther*, Am 15. Aug.). We also find the acc. of the thing and the dat. of the person: Er überredet es auch dem alten Capandro (Lessing).

The object in all the above constructions may in case of the thing be replaced by an infinitive (Acts xviii. 13) or a clause (Acts xxvi. 28).

j. Zeihen to accuse has sometimes an acc. of a neut. pronoun instead of the correct gen.: Was ich ihn zeihe, werd' ich selbst (Schiller's *Don Carlos*, 4, 6).

k. In early N.H.G. berichten took an acc. of the person and the gen. of the thing, which construction still survives in jemanden eines Besseren berichten to disabuse a person of an opinion. Early in the period the gen. is replaced by a prep. phrase or an acc.: einen von (or über) etwas berichten, or einen etwas (double acc.) berichten. The acc. of the person is now replaced by a dat.: einem etwas (or über etwas) berichten. The former acc. construction here still survives in such expressions as Wenn ich recht berichtet bin, or Du bist falsch berichtet. See 260. 3.

1. The reflexive *sich* *unterstehen* belongs properly to II. *b*, above, but as the gen. object *es* (140. *c*) which is so often used with it is construed as an acc., the real acc. is sometimes used: *Was unterstehet sich der Arme | das er unter den Lebendigen wil sein?* (Eccl. vi. 8). *Wie ich mich das unterstehen kann!* (Hopfen's *Die fünfzig Semmeln des Studiosus Taillefer*, p. 66) You wonder how I am so bold as to do that! This word is usually employed with the object *es* and an infinitive clause which stands in apposition with the *es*, or with the infinitive clause alone which takes the place of the *es*: *Aber die blasse, abgespannte Sadviga . . . fuhr auf wie ein wildes Tier, wenn er sich's unterstand, sie mit seinen Bärtlichkeiten belästigen zu wollen* (Schubin's *Refugium peccatorum*, vi). *Ihr untätigster Knecht sollte sich unterstehen, mit einem, der die Gnade hat, Ihnen anzugehören, zu zanken?* (Lessing's *Minna*, I, 3). As the *sich* in such sentences is not a distinct acc. form, it is sometimes construed as a dat., and elsewhere a real dat. is employed: *Ich unterstände mir nicht, den Mund aufzutun* (Tieck, 5, 259). *Untersteh dir's Mädel!* (Beyerlein's *Dämon Othello*, 2, 2). It is quite common to suppress the object of the thing in a few expressions: *Untersteh dich nicht!* In early N.H.G. *unterstehen* was also a transitive verb, taking as object an acc. or an infinitive clause: *Um des willen haben mich die Jüden im Tempel gegriffen | Und untertunden mich zu tödten* (Acts xxvi. 21).

2. *Accusative of the direct object and a predicate accusative.* This construction differs from the double acc. in I, above, in that the two accusatives together form logically a sentence in which the first acc. performs the office of the subject and the second acc. is either the predicate complement of the verb *sein* understood, or is itself the predicate verb: *Sie nannten ihn einen Verräter (= Er ist ein Verräter).* *Ich sehe ihn laufen (= Er läuft).*

The predicate accusative of nouns and adjectives is now, except in the group in A, below, usually introduced by *als*, *für*, or *zu*, with differentiated meanings as is described in A. *a*, *b*, *c*, below, but in early N.H.G., and also in the classical period, the objective predicate did not in a number of cases require these introductory particles where they now in ordinary prose usually stand: *Darnach wollen wir all deutsche Bischoff Cardinel (now zu Kardinälen) machenn* (Luther). *Als ich . . . | mich [als] einen Fremdling sah in diesem Kreise* (Schiller). This use of particles instead of a simple case form is in harmony with the general trend in the language to replace the simple case form by a particle which more accurately defines the relation of a noun to some other word.

The first acc. is always a noun or pronoun used as the direct object of the principal verb, but the predicate acc. can be:—

A. A noun or pronoun used as an objective predicate:

a. After *ernennen* (see J. H. Voss, II., 23, 90; now rare here, usually according to *d*, below) to appoint, *glauben* to believe, *wähnen* to fancy, imagine, *grüßen* to greet with the title of, *heißen* to call, name, *nennen* to call, *rufen* to call, *spotten* to call in derision, *taufen* to christen, *titulieren* to call, style, *schelten* to call unjustly, call (one a harsh name), *schimpfen* (stronger than *schelten*) to call (one a bad name), *machen* (now rare here, usually according to *d*, below), *träumen* (also according to

b, below) to dream: Vielleicht wäre ich der, den du mich glaubst (Lessing). Der Vater wähnet Hippodamien | die Mörderin (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 1, 3). Wir nennen Gott unseren Vater. Warum schiltst du mich einen Feigling? Zittre du für dein Leben, weil du mich Herzog (may be construed as acc. or nom.; see *Note*) spottest (Schiller's *Fiesco*, 5, 14). Dann kommen mir wohl Momente, wo ich mich ihren Bruder träume (Spielhagen's *Selbstgerecht*, II, p. 35).

Both of these accusatives become nom. in the passive: Warum wurde ich von dir ein Feigling gescholten?

Note. Instead of the predicate accusative we often find a nom.: (1) in order to preserve the exact form of direct address: Er nannte sie mein lieber Schatz, mein Engelchen, mein Kind (Hölty). Nicht ohne Grund habe ich ihn schon: Philipp, der Schweiglame, genannt (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 225). Und ich sage euch, daß ich kein Bedenken trüge, ihn heiliger Ruffinus zu nennen (Ertl's *Die Stadt der Heiligen*). Es war ein alter halbgelähmter Bettler da — er nennt sich der lange Hitz (Heer's *Der König der Bernina*, xx). (2) In case of articleless weak masculine nouns; see 218. 1. c. In case of articleless strong nouns and weak feminines it is not possible to distinguish here whether the form is nom. or acc.: Ich könnte jetzt das arme Würmchen nicht Belten (name) rufen (Raabe's *Die Akten des Vogelsangs*, p. 173). Er schreibt sich Schulze. Sie fühlt sich Mutter. With a number of reflexive verbs there is a fluctuation of usage; see 218. 2. *b* and *Note*.

b. After the verbs anerkennen to recognize, ansehen to regard, begrüßen to greet, beschreiben to describe, betrachten to consider, bezeichnen to designate, darstellen to represent, deklarieren to declare (to be), denunzieren to denounce, empfehlen to recommend, erfinden to find (some one) out (to be so and so), erwähnen to mention, kennen to know, kennzeichnen to characterize, preisen or rühmen to praise, schätzen to prize, schildern to depict, sehen to see, verdingen or vermieten to hire out as, zeigen to show to be, the objective predicate is introduced by als, which here denotes *identity* or *oneness with*: Ich betrachte ihn als einen Narren. Ich denunziere Sie hiermit dieser Gesellschaft als notorischen Atheisten! (Lienhard's *Münchhausen*, 1).

For fluctuation of usage in case of reflexive verbs, see 218. 2. *b* and *Note* thereunder.

In the passive both of these accusatives become nom.; see 252. 2. A. *b*. (1).

Note. Earlier in the period the als was not necessary here, and this older usage survives in poetry; und hast sie Lügner erfunden (Rev. ii. 2). Als ich . . . | mich einen Fremdling sah in diesem Kreise (Schiller's *Piccolomini*, 3, 4).

c. After a few verbs the objective predicate is introduced by für (with acc.), which here does not positively affirm complete and absolute identity as does als, but only equality, and hence denotes that something is considered or represented as able or worthy to pass for the thing expressed by the predicate: Man erklärte ihn für einen Betrüger They pronounced him a fraud. Er gibt sich für einen Gelehrten aus He makes himself out to be a scholar. Ich halte ihn für einen Schmeichler I consider him a flatterer. Ich achte es für eine große Ehre I esteem it a great honor. Ich erkenne ihn für einen Freund I own him as my friend. For the passive construction see 252. 2. A. *b*. (2).

Note 1. Several verbs, as *erachten*, *ansehen*, *erkennen*, *ausschreien*, *ausrufen* (to proclaim as), are followed by either *als* or *für* according to the shade of meaning required: *Sie erkannten* (recognized) *die von dem Finanzminister abgelegte Rechnung als* (as, here expressing identity) *falsch*, aber aus Mangel an Mut *erkannten* (pronounced) *sie dieselbe für* (simply letting it pass as) *richtig*. Often there is a sharp distinction between *als* and *für*; *als*, however, is decidedly the favorite, and is even used when *für* would be more appropriate.

Note 2. Earlier in the period the *für* with those verbs was not always necessary, and this older usage survives in poetry: *Selbst unsinnige verfluchte Gojim halten sie uns* (Luther, *Erlanger Ausgabe*, 32, 226). *Du hältst es Recht* (Goethe's *Tasso*, 2, 4).

d. As after *werden* (252. 2. A. b. (3)), so also after the verbs *machen* to make, *einsetzen* to appoint, designate, *wählen* to elect, *ernennen* to appoint, *ausrufen* to proclaim, *sich fallen* to make one's self by falling, &c., the prep. *zu* (with the dat.) introduces the objective predicate to denote a transformation into a new condition: *Der Zwang der Zeiten machte mich zu ihrem Gegner*. *Der König ernannte ihn zum Offizier*. *Er hat sich zum Krüppel gefallen*. In the passive the acc. becomes nom., but the objective predicate remains as in the active: *Er wurde vom König zum Offizier ernannt*.

Note. Earlier in the period the *zu* was not always necessary here: *Darnach wollen wir all deutsche Bischoff Cardinel machenn* (Luther, 6, 121, Weimar).

B. The objective predicate can be an adjective or a participle, now usually uninflected, unless preceded by an article or some other modifying word: *Er weinte sich die Augen rot*. *Er schlug ihn tot*. Here belongs the perf. participle in compound tenses: *Er hat einen Brief geschrieben*.

Instead of an adjective or participle we often find here a gen. or a prep. phrase: *Jedenfalls rechne nicht darauf, mich anderen Sinnes zu machen* (Fontane's *Frau Jenny*, XII). *Er fiel sich tot* or *zu Tode*.

a. Instead of the simple uninflected form this objective predicate is in certain instances, as in case of nouns (see A. b and c), introduced by the particles *als* or *für*: *Wir betrachten die Sache als abgemacht*. *Er hält mich für reich*. The objective predicate here can also be a prepositional phrase: *Daß Schlimmste aber ist, daß die heranwachsenden Kinder die ganze lottrige Wirtschaft für in Ordnung halten* (Frenssen's *Jörn Uhl*, chap. v).

Note 1. *Als* and *für* are more extensively used in case of certain adjectives than of nouns, as the simple adjective objective predicate may be mistaken for an adverb: *Er schalt mich heftig* = He scolded me severely, or He called me passionate. The ambiguity is removed by using *als* or *für*, or by converting the adjective into a substantive: *Er schalt mich als heftig*, or *Er schalt mich einen Heftigen*. Thus also, unless the context makes the thought clear, it is better to say *Ich erkläre euch für frei* than *Ich erkläre euch frei*. Usage in general with regard to these particles is not entirely fixed. Some verbs take *als*, others *für*, still others both *als* and *für*, either with about the same meaning or a different shade, as in the following: *Die Preisrichter erkannten ihn als vorzüglicher*, aber sie wollten ihn aus Rücksicht auf den mächtigen Mitbewerber nicht dafür erkennen.

Note 2. Earlier in the period the particles *als* and *für* were not always necessary here: *Unstetlich wie du bist, hältst du dich gut?* (Goethe's *Tasso*, 2, 3), now usually *für gut*.

C. A predicate infinitive is found after the following verbs (the more common ones are in heavy type): *ahnen* to have a presentiment of, *bemerken* to notice, *sich denken* to imagine to one's self, *sich dünken* to seem, *empfinden* to feel, *erblicken* to notice, *finden* to find, *fühlen* to feel, *führen* to lead, *gewahren* to perceive, *glauben* to believe, *haben* to have, *hören* to hear, *lassen* to let, order, cause, *machen* to make, *schauen* to see, *sehen* to see, *spüren* to feel, *tragen* to carry, *vernehmen* to hear, *wähnen* to imagine, *wiegen* to rock, *wissen* to know, *zeigen* to show. Exs.: *Ich drückt der Stunde Last niemals zu schwer | und nie so leicht, daß er sich fliegen dachte!* (Schnitzler's *Der Schleier der Beatrice*, p. 133). *Ich habe sie im Regen spazieren geführt* (Raabe's *Der Lar*, p. 253). *Ich höre ihn kommen* I hear him coming. *Ich lasse ihn kommen* (with active force) I shall have him come. *Ich lasse mir von ihm einen neuen Rock machen* (with passive force) I am having a new coat made by him. *Er sieht mich kommen*. *Weinte deine liebe Mama auch immerlos weiter, wenn die schwarzen Männer deinen Papa schlafen trugen?* (H. Pichler-Felsing's *Auf Abbruch verkauft*). For other examples see 185. B. I. 2. d. In some cases the infinitive here has developed from a present participle, which is still more or less frequently used; see 185. B. I, 2. d. (1).

a. If the infin. should have as an object a pronoun of the same form as the object of the principal verb, the two similar forms should either be separated from each other by several words, or one of them may be dropped: *Laß mich | an jene goldenen Zeiten mich erinnern* (Schiller). *Laß uns eignen Wertes [uns] freuen* (Grillparzer).

b. After some of these verbs a prep. phrase is often found as a predicate instead of an infinitive: *Ich sah ihn weinen*, or *in Tränen*.

c. In the eighteenth century the dative of the person instead of the acc. is frequently found after *lassen* and *machen*, especially the former, and sometimes after *sehen*: *Ein Geschenk, das mir jeden neuern Verlust ertragen machte* (Goethe an Karl August, I, 113). This construction is in part due to the influence of the analogous French expressions, as *faire voir quelque chose à quelqu'un*, and in part to the general tendency toward the dative of a person in connection with the accusative of a thing. This usage still lingers on in the literature of our time, also in popular language: *Er ging aber vergeblich die Fremdenliste durch und war endlich froh, die Insel, der er seine Mißstimmung entgelten ließ, nach zweitägigem Aufenthalt wieder verlassen zu können* (Fontane's *Cécile*, chap. xvii). *Er suchte ihm durch Aufmerksamkeiten das unangenehme Abenteuer vergessen zu machen* (1001 *Nacht*, übersetzt von Alex. König). *Sie elender, undankbarer Mensch, ist das der Lohn, daß wir Ihnen in unsern (106. Note 3) Haus ein Jahr und sechs Monat Geld hab'n verdienen lassen?* (Anzengruber's *Das vierte Gebot*, I, 8). In general this incorrect construction is avoided now in choice language. This dative of the person, however, is not infrequently found instead of the regular acc. in einem (or, of course, einen) etwas fühlen, merken, sehen, verspüren, wissen lassen: — *wie mir jeder Ihrer Briefe deutlich sehen läßt* (Goethe). *Während an der Donau unten | steht dem Türk' der Kaiseradler | seine Fäng' verspüren läßt* (Scheffel's *Trompeter*, Erstes Stück). *Das muß ich fennen, und hätte es ihm beim ersten Flunkerwort abgespürt und es ihm merken lassen* (Raabe's *Zum wilden Mann*, chap. x). *Du kannst ihm von deinen Ansichten wissen lassen* (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, II). The dat. seems more natural here than elsewhere in this construction, as the infinitive may in most cases be construed as passive in force and the dative be considered a dative of agent (258. 3. A. a): *Man ließ es ihm merken*, literally *They allowed it to be observed by him*. In connection

with *wissen lassen* the dative may be felt as the indirect object after the analogy of *einem etwas zu wissen tun*. The correct acc. of the person is also quite common: *Aber um Gottes willen ihn nur nichts hiervon merken lassen!* (Raabe's *Der Lar*, p. 204). Im Gegenteil bemühte ich mich, ihn nicht merken zu lassen, daß ich etwas davon wußte (R. Huch's *Aus der Triumphgasse*, II). Man durfte es ihn natürlich nicht merken lassen, jedoch — hart kam es einem an (Beyerlein's *Jena oder Sedan*?, I).

In the reflexive expression *sich etwas merken lassen* to *betray, show, "let on,"* the dat. of the person is just as correct as the accusative, and is much more common: *Lasse dir (or dich) nichts davon gegen ihn merken* Don't let on to him. *Aber habe ich es igt merken lassen, daß ich eine (Philosophin) bin?* — O psui, wenn ich mir es habe merken lassen, und wenn ich mir es öfterer habe merken lassen! (Lessing's *Emilia*, 4, 3). *Ich fürchtete mich so sehr als die andern, ließ mich es aber nicht merken* (Goethe). *Doch ließ ich mir nichts merken* (id.). *Ich fürchte, ich habe mir merken lassen, wie widerwärtig mir das alles war* (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 35). The *es* in such expressions as in the first sentence from Goethe is in reality not an accusative, but an old genitive (104. c) of specification, which was not infrequent in early N.H.G.: *Ich ließ mich dessen nicht merken, daß ich's verstehe* (*Buch der Liebe*, 194^d, Frankfurt, 1587), literally *I did not allow myself to be observed with regard to that*. The genitive form *es* is now construed as an accusative, and hence the original construction is no longer understood and the thought has become obscure, which naturally leads to the use of the dative of reference here: *Ich ließ mir es nicht merken*, literally *I did not allow it to be observed on me*. The acc. of the thing here is omitted after a comparative: *Diese Erkenntnis war denn auch meinem Unfel viel eher gekommen, als er sich merken ließ* (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. xxi).

In some expressions the acc. or dat. of the person may be used, but with quite different meaning: *Er ließ mich vorlesen* *He had me to read to him*, but *Er ließ mir vorlesen* *He had some one to read to me*.

Provincially the nom. often occurs here instead of the acc. of the person: *Jahne: Na, Indrit! Trembe fragt schon nach dir. Indrit: Laß er fragen* (Keyserling's *Ein Frühlingsoffer*, 2). This peculiar idiom is the result of the blending of two constructions: *Er mag fragen* and *Laß ihn fragen*.

Synesis.

263. Different parts of speech, especially pronouns, often assume a different *gender* or *number* from that required by the strict rules of grammatical concordance, following in these points the *meaning* of the word in the particular use in question rather than the usual grammatical gender or number of the antecedent or the word to which reference is made. This assignment of gender and number according to meaning is called *Synesis* (, i. e. understanding, sense).

I. *Synesis of Gender*. Words may assume their gender according to meaning in the following cases:

1. A neuter diminutive, or any other neut. or masc. word representing a female, such as *Weib, Weibchen, Weiblein, Fräulein, Frauenzimmer, Mädchen, Mädel, Mägdlein, Töchterlein, Töchterchen, Kind, Geschöpf, and Mensch*, require usually the article and any other attributive adj. standing before them and also the relative pronoun referring to them to be neut. or masc., but the personal pronouns, possessive adjectives, and all other adjectives on the other hand which refer to them are much more commonly fem. according to the sex of the person

represented: Das Fräulein ist nicht zu Hause; sie ist spazieren gegangen. Du böses Lantchen! Du bist das leutseligste Komteschchen, das es nur auf der Welt geben kann. Dieses Weib hat ihrem Gatten Kummer gemacht. Du schönste der Weiber! (Heyse's *Maria von Magdala*, 3, 10). Aber du bist eine von den wenigen glücklichen Frauenzimmern (M. Dreyer's *Winterschlaf*, 1). Sie war eine von den wenigen Menschen, die zu würdigen wissen, was es heißt geliebt zu sein. Although synesis of gender is more common in this category than any other, present usage is inclining more and more to stricter grammatical concordance: Es war keine andere Obhut für Lili geblieben, als die alte Haushälterin des Verstorbenen, ein auf seine „Bildung“ stolzes, aber ungebildetes Weibchen (Wilbrandt's *Vater Robinson*, II, chap. 1). Sophie ist das schönste (also die schönste) der Mädchen. Er rief der Bräute (name) . . . zu, sie solle nebenan dem Mädchen sagen, es möge aufstehen, er habe nachher mit ihm zu reden (Telmann's *Wahrheit*, IX). Anna sah die Tante zögernd an; da diese aber nur ein wenig lächelte, so tat das Mädchen, was ihm geboten war (H. Seidel's *Die Augen der Erinnerung*, II). Seit jenem Tage hatte ich nichts anderes mehr im Kopf als das Prinzeßchen und seinen Garten (Isolde Kurz's *Nachbar Werner*).

a. In the expression Ihr(e) Fräulein Tochter *your* (unmarried) *daughter*, Ihr Fräulein Schwester, &c., the possessive or article is now more commonly neut.: von Ihrem Fräulein Braut (Spielhagen's *Herrin*, p. 258), ein Fräulein Nichte (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, p. 115). The fem., however, is not infrequent, especially earlier in the period: mit Ihrer Fräulein Tochter (Schiller), gegen deine Fräulein Schwester (Raabe), Ihre Fräulein Schwester (H. Hoffmann). In colloquial language we often find the fem. article here before a name: die (instead of the choicer das) Fräulein Ehrhard. The simple word Fräulein was formerly treated as a fem., and is still so used in popular language: Nein, das war eine alte Fräul'n, die schon immer bei ihnen gewohnt hat (Mizi in Schnitzler's *Liebelei*, Act I).

b. The synesis of the relative here was not uncommon earlier in the period, and is still found in popular speech, and sometimes even in the literary language: Jenes Mädchen ist's, das vertriebene, die du gewählt hast (Goethe's *H. und D.*, 4, 210). Bitte, grüßen Sie das gnädige Fräulein, die so gut ist (Frau Hulen in Fontane's *Vor dem Sturm*, IV, chap. vii). Er nahm Marys Arm und führte das weinende Mädchen, die ihm willenlos gehorchte (Samarow's *Honni soit qui mal y pense*). Petrea ist ein eitles, äußerliches Geschöpf, die sich mit dem Vermögen ihres Onkels aufpust (Jensen's *Das Bild im Wasser*, p. 37). Synesis is more common in case of a second relative, as the pronoun does not immediately follow the antecedent, and the speaker or writer has the natural sex in mind rather than the grammatical gender of the antecedent: Denn der Alte hatte ein Enkelstöchterchen bei sich, zu dem sie Pate gestanden und deren sie sich auf allerlei Art anzunehmen pflegte (Storm's *In St. Jürgen*). We now usually find strict grammatical concordance here in choice language: Wir haben da ein sehr zartes Fräuchen, das eine Weile gepflegt werden muß (H. Böhlau).

2. Diminutives of masc. common nouns representing males usually require grammatical concordance. They take the neut. article: das Männlein, das Söhnlein, &c. Pronouns referring to such nouns are as a rule neut., although synesis often occurs: Sobald ihn das kleine Männchen ganz verstand, fuhr es wie besessen in die Höhe (G. Keller). Ein kleines schwarzes Männlein, welches auf der Bank an der anderen Seite der Tür saß (Raabe's *Schüdderump*, chap. 1). The

synesis of the personal pronoun becomes more common, the further it is removed from the noun to which it refers. The synesis of the relative occurs only in older literature: Ein Kerlchen, den Frau Fortuna zu ihrem Liebling gedrechselt zu haben schien (Klinger).

3. If a feminine or a neuter other than a diminutive represents a male, the same rule is now followed as is given in 2 for diminutives: Als Seine Majestät, | der Kaiser, ihren (*His*) mutigen Armeen | ein ruhmgelächtes, kriegserfahrenes Haupt | geschenkt in der Person des Herzogs Friedland (Schiller's *Piccolomini*, 2, 7). Fast drehte sich im kaiserlichen Lager | . . . um Heinrichs Jäger, Arzt, Roß, Hund und Federspiel | mehr das Gespräch als um die Majestät | des Kaisers selbst, die nie zur Tafel ging, | Heinrich von Rue schritt ihr denn zur Seite (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 2, p. 57). Draußen rief er eine Ordonnanz und schärfte ihr ein, Leutnant von Edelsleth zu benachrichtigen, daß er gegangen sei (Ompteda's *Sylvester von Geyer*, lviii). Nun ward es eine untersekte, breitrückige Mannsperon, deren Kleidung sich nicht deutlich unterscheiden ließ (Jensen's *Schatzsucher*, p. 164). Das Mitglied des Kongresses, daß, &c.; die Schildwache, die vor der Tür steht. Except in case of the relative, synesis sometimes occurs: Erzellenz zauberten uns hier einen seiner schönen Gärten (Gutzkow).

4. The article, or pronominal or qualifying adjective, before the diminutive form of a proper name which represents a person has often natural gender in certain dialects, while other dialects are not unfriendly to the neut. gender: die Kiesel (Anzengruber's *Kreuzelschreiber*, 3, 3), die Söphel (ib., 2, 11), der Toni (ib., 1, 3), arme Kiesel (Anzengruber's *Gänseliesel*), das Bärbele (Auerbach's *Tonele*, chap. 1), das arme Hannele (Hauptmann's *Hanneles Himmelfahrt*, p. 75). Likewise common nouns when used as names: die Mutterchen muß ihren Tee haben (Schulze-Smidt's *Denk' ich an Deutschland in der Nacht*, II). Der Herrchen darf nicht schelten (ib.). The neuter form of the article or pronominal adjective is preferred in the literary language, more decidedly, however, with reference to males than females: Das kleine Händchen, du gutes Händchen, mein kleines Dörtchen, and not infrequently die Dörtchen in colloquial speech, but not der Händchen. In the literary language as well as in dialect all pronouns and possessives referring to such words are quite commonly selected according to the natural gender except relatives, which usually in choice language follow the gender of the antecedent: „Mutter, so viel Geld hast du bekommen!“ rief Lieschen, als sie auf dem Fensterbrett eine Reihe Silbermünzen liegen sah. Lieschen und ihre Mutter. Sometimes the pronoun or the possessive are selected according to the grammatical gender: Schweigend verbeugte sich Glöcklein, wofür ihm ein hochmütiges Nicken wurde. Was aus dem Korderl (Kordula + lein) seiner (*her*) Mutter und dem Herrn Ingenieur geworden, hatte ich nicht erfahren können (P. Heyse's *Ein Idealist*). If there is an inflected adjective before the diminutive, synesis of the relative is not now common in the literary language, although it occasionally occurs in case of reference to females: das kleine Händchen, das unter dem Baume sitzt. Das hübsche Lisettchen von Ulmberg, der (instead of the more common dem) das Kostüm des vorigen Jahrhunderts allerliebste zu Gesicht steht (National-

Zeitung, 28, 47). Synesis of the relative is, however, quite common even in case of masculines, if there is no inflected adjective before the diminutive: *Mädchen*, die der Mutter Freude war; *Hänschen*, der ein sehr guter Knabe ist. But also here we sometimes find grammatical concordance: *Brennen*, welches nur das eine zu fühlen fähig war (Keller's *Romeo und Julie*).

5. If the word *Frau* stands before the title of the husband, the article agrees with *Frau* instead of with the title: *Die geehrte Frau Professor*.

6. Aside from the above cases, a noun, pronoun, or adjective-substantive representing a person usually has natural gender, but where the sex is a matter of doubt or little concern, as in case of children or the young of animals, the substantive is often neut., as this gender gives grammatical expression to the idea of vagueness: *Der Freund* (male) friend, *die Freundin* lady friend, *der Kranke* or *die Kranke*, but *das Kleine* the young child, *sein Kleinstes* his smallest child, *das Junge eines Schafes*.

a. After the indefinite pronouns *jemand*, *niemand*, *wer*, the following adjective-substantive is in the neut., or now more commonly in the masc., to indicate that it may represent either a male or female; see 145, *Notes* under *b*, *c*, and *e*.

b. The masc., less frequently the neut., is used in general references, referring to either males or females, or both, and also in cases where it is desired to emphasize the abstract idea in the word without reference to sex: *Feuer ist mir der Freund*, doch auch den Feind kann ich nützen; zeigt mir der Freund, was ich kann, lehrt mich der Feind, was ich soll (Schiller). *Der Gerechte* wird seines Glaubens leben (Romans i. 17). *Die Hütte* scheint mir etwas zu eng. Für uns beide doch geräumig genug, versetzte Charlotte. Nun freilich, sagte Eduard, für einen Dritten ist auch wohl noch Platz. Warum nicht? versetzte Charlotte, und auch für ein Viertes (Goethe's *Die Wahlverwandtschaften*, chap. i). Es ist ja kein Fremdes, das danach fragt, ich bin ja doch dein Kind (Anzengruber's *Schandfleck*, 11). For an example of the use of the masc. for an abstract idea see 253. III. 2. a. The neuter is also used to denote an abstract idea, but its use differs from that of the masculine; see 253. III. 2. a, 2nd paragraph. General references applying to either males or females are especially common in case of pronouns and pronominal adjectives. Here the masc. form is now usually found, but the neut. forms *es*, *das*, *dies*, *jedes*, *alles*, *keins*, *ein(e)s*, *was*, &c., are also found, especially in the cases recorded in II. 4, below: Es ist keiner vor dem Tode glücklich zu preisen, denn jeder ist dem Wechsel des Schicksals unterworfen. Vater und Mutter sind jedes ein Mensch für sich, und die Menschen sind verschieden (Wildenbruch's *Neid*). Knaben, Männer und Frauen, keins blieb unberührt (Goethe). Wenn ich nur eines meiner eigenen Angehörigen jetzt bei mir hätte! (Auerbach). Fröhlich übt sich, was ein Meister werden will (Schiller). For fuller description of the use of *was* see 157. b. There is sometimes a shade of difference between the neut. and masc. of some of these words, the former having collective, the latter individualizing force: Und jedes (each and all of the brothers and sisters) qualte seine Phantasie mit einem neuen Reize dich zu schmücken. | Der gab dir Pallas' Aug', der Heres Arm, | der Aphroditens reizdurchwirkten Gürtel (Grillparzer's *Sappho*, 1, 3). Instead of a masc. or neut. sometimes both masc. and fem. are used to emphasize especially the idea that both sexes are included: Keiner und keine bleibe daheim (Rosegger). Diesen hier mußte wohl jeder und jede schon finden (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 148).

c. When a pronoun refers to no definite noun, but to a general or indefinite idea, the neuter is used: Er meint es gut mit dir. Er hat es bequem. „Die Erfüllung ist an eine Bedingung geknüpft.“ „Welche Bedingung? sage mir's“ (Freytag). The es here cannot refer to the fem. Bedingung, but to the unknown purport of the condition.

d. A demonstrative pronoun used as the subject or object of a verb and referring to a preceding individual usually agrees in the literary form of speech with its antecedent in gender, but colloquially the neuter is often used without reference to the antecedent: Ich kenne deinen Vater wohl: der (colloquially das) ist ein braver Mann.

7. The relative is neuter if the reference is to a fem. noun denoting an indefinite quantity: Fräulein Hermann wußte eine Menge (= viel) über Goethe zu sagen, das nicht ganz dem entsprach, was Professor von Rangenhofen vorgetragen hatte (Oempteda's *Cäcilie von Sarryn*, chap. 18).

8. Sometimes the predicate noun does not assume a grammatical form in accordance with the natural sex of the person represented by the subject; see 253. III. 2. a.

9. In the expression *seinerzeit* in *his* (or *her, their, my, our*) *time* the possessive may remain constant without reference to the gender of the antecedent; see 138. 2. a.

II. *Synesis of Number*. The number of a word may be regulated by the sense instead of by the rules of grammatical concordance in the following categories:

1. The cases where the number of the verb is regulated by the sense are described in 253. I. 1. d, g and 2. c, d.

2. In the earlier part of the period a personal pronoun (er, sie, es, derselbe, solche) is not infrequently in the pl. if it refers to a sing. noun containing a collective idea: Den Teufel spürt das Völkchen nie, | und wenn er sie beim Kragen hätte! (Goethe's *Faust*, Auerbachs Keller). This usage continues in our own time, but the trend toward strict grammatical concordance has become very strong, so that the sing. here is now more common in the literary language. Synesis is, however, still quite common when the pronoun refers to a noun in the sing. representing not an individual but a whole class: Ich hatte mir . . . eingebildet . . . , auf dem Boß säße der Tod in einem schwarzen, flatternden Mantel, auf seinem klappernden Schädel einen blanken, niedrigen Hut, wie ich solche an unseren Droschkenkutschern zu sehen gewohnt war (R. Huch's *Ludolf Ursleu*, chap. 26).

Synesis of the possessive was common earlier in the period: Da riß alles Volk seine goldenen Ohrringe von ihren Ohren (Luther). Ein echter deutscher Mann mag keinen Franzen leiden, | doch ihre Weine trinkt er gern (Goethe's *Faust*, Auerbachs Keller). This usage still continues: Wenn wir Deutsche nach Frankreich gehen, so lernen wir vorher die Sprache ihres Landes (Riehl). The trend to-day is decidedly toward strict grammatical concordance or toward the avoidance of a conflict by changing the construction: Die Treue des Volkes zu seinem König.

Synesis of the relative occurs earlier in the period: Denn der HERR hat das Geschlecht | vber die er zornig ist | verworfen und verstoßen

(Jer. vii. 29). Des Hauses Espinay —, die nicht in den Krieg zögen, um reich zu werden (Schiller). To-day the synesis of the relative is in the strict sense almost unknown. For an instance see 253. I. r. g. It is usually only used when the relative stands in a loose relation to its antecedent, introducing a free and independent statement with reference to either a preceding collective idea contained in a sing. noun together with its modifying adjective, or with reference to a noun in the sing. representing not an individual but a whole class: Manches aufstrebende Talent, deren einige nunmehr zu Ruf und Ruhm gelangt sind. Jeder Wiß, an denen er es nicht fehlen ließ, wurde stürmisch belacht. Ist's nicht ein Mönch, deren du tausende sahst?

3. Sometimes we find a plural pronoun referring to a noun which is sing. in form, but which in the passage in question by its synecdochical or metonymic use represents a plural idea: Das edle Weib ist halb ein Mann, ja ganz, erst ihre Fehler machen sie zu Weibern (Grillparzer). Rußland sucht sein Gebiet in Asien zu erweitern; sie sind abermals vorgerückt. While this usage continues in our own day the trend is toward strict grammatical concordance or toward avoidance of a conflict by changing the construction.

4. The neuter sing. of a pronoun or adjective-substantive is often used without reference to the sex or the number of the persons or things referred to:

a. Alles is used to give the general idea of universality, including males and females, young and old: Alles freut sich der Frühlingszeit. Everybody rejoices in spring. Alles (everybody) war entzückt. Alles rät ihm ein milderes Klima zu suchen. Heute ist Familientag und dazu muß alles da sein, was unseren Namen trägt (Ompfeda's *Eysen*).

b. Jedes is used to indicate that the statement applies to all the members of a certain group, both males and females: Stillschweigend hörten sie zu, indem jedes in sich selbst zurückkehrte. The masc. sing. is also used here.

c. Also daß, dies, and sometimes es are used collectively, embracing a number of things previously mentioned or pointed out by gesture: Gold und Schätze, Macht und Hoheit, das begehre ich nicht. Schönheit, Ehre, Reichtum, dies alles ist vergänglich.

d. Daß is often used referring to individuals, not as such, but as members of *one class*: Schon so große Töchter hast du? Wie das heranwächst! Are your daughters so large already? Well, how girls do grow!

e. The neut. sing. beides is used in a collective sense, including both of two things: Ich habe beides Brief und Packet richtig erhalten. Sommer und Winter trug sie ein schmieriges, schwarzseidenes Fransentüchlein um den Kopf und einen verschossenen, türkischen Schal um die Schultern, beides sorgfältig nach hinten ins Dreieck gelegt (Isolde Kurz's *Das Vermächtnis der Tante Susanne*).

f. The neut. indefinite eins (or the masc. form einer) often stands after the gen. pl. of a personal pronoun to indicate that the different persons of the class referred to in the personal pronoun, whether they be males or females, are included in the statement, and that not a mere reference to one is intended: Wenn unsereins (or very

commonly unsereiner) am Spinnen war, | . . . stand sie bei ihrem Puhlen süß (Goethe's *Faust*, Am Brunnen) When we (here : hard-working girls like you and me) used to be, &c. Sometimes the fem. form is used to make a distinct reference to females: Wahrscheinlich zu alt, zu erhaben über ein armes Ding wie ich, um vernünftig mal über eine Sache mit unsereiner . . . zu reden (Raabe's *Gutmanns Reisen*, chap. 17).

g. An adjective-substantive is often used in the neut. sing. to indicate in a general way the idea of a collection or indefinite number of things: Man hört viel Gutes und viel Dummes We hear many good and foolish things. Er hat mir viel Liebes und Gutes erwiesen. See also 109. a. (2).

h. Das, dies, es, jenes, are often used as subjects referring to one or several, to a masc., fem., or neut., whenever they represent the thing or things pointed out by a gesture or the context as identical with the thing or things indicated by the predicate: Das ist mein Buch. Das sind meine Bücher. Die unbekannte Wohltäterin, von der ihr sprachet, das ist diese Frau. Es sind meine Brüder They are my brothers. Here the gesture or preceding words always make the reference so clear that close grammatical concordance does not seem necessary.

i. The neut. pronominal forms es, das, was, often stand as a predicate, referring to a masc., fem., or neut., a sing. or pl.: Sie hält sich für eine große Künstlerin, ohne es zu sein She thinks she is a great artist, although she is not. Wir hofften willkommene Gäste zu sein, und wir waren es wirklich We hoped to be welcome guests and we were indeed so. Er ist ein Gelehrter; das ist sein Bruder nicht. Was ist seine Schwester? Eine Schauspielerin. Here these pronouns do not refer to the sex of the persons denoted by their antecedents, but rather to the general abstract idea contained within these antecedents, hence the lack of literal grammatical concordance with the words to which they refer and the selection of the neuter form.

5. In the expression *seinerzeit* in his (or her, their, my, our) time the possessive may remain constant without reference to the number of the antecedent; see 138. 2. a.

Adverbial Modifiers.

264. Adverbial modifiers assume the form of simple uninflected adverbs, nouns in an oblique case, a prepositional phrase, or a clause: Große Seelen dulden still. Großen Mutes trat er herein. Sie weinte vor Freude. Während wir schliefen, brach der Sturm los. This subject is treated at considerable length under the head of Adverbs in Part II, beginning at 223. The adverbial clause is treated in 273-283.

INDEPENDENT ELEMENTS.

265. Independent elements are words, phrases, or clauses, which are not related grammatically to other parts of the sentence, or which stand all alone without filling any grammatical office. In some cases these elements are in fact grammatically independent, while in others they are only seemingly so, as they in

reality belong to some word understood. The following are the most important classes of such elements:

A. The name of a person who is called or spoken to is often inserted in a sentence without any grammatical connection with the rest of the proposition. Such words now stand in the nom., in an earlier period, however, they stood in a distinct case, called the *vocative*: *Kinder, ich habe euch allen etwas mitgebracht.*

B. *Absolute Construction.* Words are often used *absolutely*, that is, without a grammatical connection with any other word in the sentence. This construction may assume different forms:

a. An uninflected participle may be used absolutely, with the force of a subordinate clause which has a subject of a general meaning such as *man* *one*, *they*, *was* *what*, &c.: *Diesen Mangel abgerechnet* (= wenn man diesen Mangel abrechnet), *ist die Wohnung gut* Not taking note of this defect, the house is a good one. *Die Sache so angesehen* (= wenn man die Sache so ansieht), *scheint nur dieser Weg zum Ziele zu führen.* *Die Sache selbst betreffend* (= was die Sache selbst betrifft), *so ist zunächst zu bemerken* Concerning the point itself, it is necessary first to remark. *Die alte Sprache anlangend . . . so denke ich ganz wie Sie* (T. Storm an G. Keller, 25. Juni 1878). *Meine dummen Späße betreffend, hoffe ich immer noch, mich derselben noch vor Torschluss zu entledigen* (G. Keller an T. Sturm, 25. Juni 1878). In einer andern Abteilung werden *Schiffskanonen aller Kaliber und Arten zu sehen sein, mit denen des 15. Jahrhunderts beginnend.* The acc. in this construction is the object of the verbal idea in the participle. Instead of the acc. of a noun we very often find a clause: *Gesetzt, daß er seinen Haß gegen mich aufgibt, so werde ich ihm gern verzeihen.* *Gesetzt, Prozesse wären nicht auf Erden, wie könnt' alsdann das Mein und Dein bestimmt entschieden werden?* (Gellert). There is often no object at all: *Abgesehen von diesem Lärm, an den man sich bald gewöhnte, konnte man in Versailles glauben, im tiefen Frieden zu leben* (Moltke). *Die Lerte schließen sich, von wenigen Ausnahmen abgesehen, möglichst genau an die handschriftliche Überlieferung an* (Braune's *Althochdeutsches Lesebuch*, Vorwort, 1. Aufl.).

The absolute use of the perfect participle here has resulted from a confounding of the original syntactical relations. The next to the last sentence in the preceding paragraph gives us an insight into these original relations. The participle *abgesehen* was, perhaps, used with active force = *abgesehen habend* and was felt as belonging to the subject *man*, and hence was in reality not used absolutely. As the perfect participle is not now commonly found with a noun or pronoun in an active sense to denote an act, it became detached from its governing word when it was employed in this sense and was thus left without definite syntactical relations, and hence the reference was construed as an indefinite or general one. The construction has become very productive and can now be used where the participle cannot be brought into relation with any word in the principal proposition, as in the last sentence in the preceding paragraph, provided, however, the reference is a general one. In the same manner the present participle became detached from its governing word and was employed absolutely. It is, however, not

so commonly found in this use as the perfect participle, and is largely confined to a few such expressions as those given above.

b. Absolute Accusative and Nominative,

(1) *Absolute Accusative*. An absolute acc., analogous to the ablative absolute in Latin, often forms, in connection with an uninflected adjective, a participle, an adverb, or prepositional phrase, a construction that is equivalent to a subordinate clause of which the acc. is the logical subject, and the adj., part., adverb, or phrase, the predicate: Wilhelm hatte, den Kopf in die Hand gestützt (= indem der Kopf in die Hand gestützt war), nachdenklich zugehört. Der Mann näherte sich ihm langsam, die Arme herunterhängend, die Augen starr. Und so kehrte ich denn in die Heimat zurück, nichts mein als einen leeren Beutel. So stand er da, die Füße auswärts, den Kopf empor, die Arme übereinander. Friedrich ging, die Hände auf dem Rücken, im Zimmer auf und ab. Dies getan, entfernte er sich After this was done he withdrew. Unser Gepäck auf ein Maultier geladen, zogen wir aus (Goethe). Goethe ist der König seines Volks; ihn gestürzt und wie leicht dann mit dem Volke fertig werden (Börne). Ein paar Tage vergangen, wußte ich wieder nicht, ob es schon Zeit sei, die Notizen abzuholen oder nicht (Grillparzer's *Der arme Spielmann*). Diese (i.e. die Tür) zu, ging das Feuer auf dem Herd aus (Hans Hopfen's *Verdorben zu Paris*, I, 265). Dies geschehen, nahm der Student Konrad an der Hand und führte ihn usw. (ib., II, 155). Nun das geordnet, schritt er verhältnismäßig beruhigt seiner Wohnung zu (Ernst Heilborn's *Der goldene Ring*, viii). Einmal den Vorteil in ihrer Hand, haben die Japaner keinen Augenblick gesäumt, ihn aufs äußerste auszunützen (*Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, 20. Mai 1904). The accusative is sometimes omitted: Da sagt' ich: kleine Herlein, grüß' euch Gott! | Was braut und backt und kocht ihr hier im Dunklen? | Doch kaum gesagt—hui! stob der Schwarm davon (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, I, p. 19). This construction is used to give the time or some circumstance of an action. Sometimes it can be construed as having temporal, conditional, or concessive force.

The accusative here was originally the object of some verb, and sometimes we find a present participle expressed: Den Text der Nibelungen vor mir habend, konnte ich eine Übersetzung vorlesen (Goethe). The *perfect* participle is still usually expressed: „Franziska," rief sie, die Augen auf mich gerichtet, „bin ich nun glücklich?" (Lessing's *Minna*, 3, 3). The acc. die Augen is in reality the object of the participle gerichtet (habend), so that the clause has the meaning *having turned her eyes upon me*. Thus the participle is in fact not used absolutely, but limits the subject sie. All feeling for the original construction, however, has disappeared. The participle is now felt as having passive meaning in accordance with its usual force, and thus has become detached from its governing word and has been brought into relation to a new subject, namely the accusative, its former object. This accusative is now associated with the adverbial accusative which is so commonly employed to express the same ideas. It differs from the adverbial accusative found elsewhere in that it can never be used alone without an accompanying word. The accompanying word is construed as the logical predicate to

the logical subject which is contained in the accusative. Thus these words have the force of an adverbial clause. The relation of this clause to the verb of the principal proposition is not indicated by a conjunction, but by the accusative form of its subject. That the relation of this construction to the principal verb is that of an adverb to its governing word is plainly indicated by the fact that an adverbial genitive or prepositional phrase is often used instead of the absolute construction: *Wankenden Schrittes, mit Tränen in den Augen, erscheint der alte Mann auf der Schwelle* (Raabe). So mit dem Felleisen auf dem Rücken und ein paar Groschen in der Tasche glaubte man Herr der Welt zu sein (Baumbach's *Der Schwiegersohn*, VIII). In these prepositional clauses the predicate sometimes assumes the form of an *attributive* participle instead of a *predicate* participle: *Nach getaner Arbeit ist gut ruhen*. The attributive form is quite common in a few expressions: *nach geschlossenem Frieden, nach beendetem Kriege, nach aufgehobener Tafel, bei einbrechender Nacht, bei drohendem Regen, &c.* The attributive form is the rule in the adverbial genitive: *unverrichteter Sache* without having attained one's end, without accomplishing anything, *stehenden Fußes* immediately, *tränennden Auges* or *nur tränennden Augen, &c.*

The absolute accusative construction was little used in earlier periods, but it has become very common. It is growing at the expense of the older prepositional construction, which, however, is still quite frequently employed. Compare: *Mit wāngon tho bifiltē* (geschlagen) *bigān er āntwurten* (Otfrid's *Evangelienbuch*, IV, XIX, 17) with *Dies vorausgeschickt, fahre ich in meiner Erzählung fort* (F. Lewald's *Lebensg.*, III, II, 195). We have both of these constructions in English: *He went off gun or with gun in hand*. In English, however, the older absolute acc. has been replaced by the nom.

The nom. absolute sometimes replaces the acc. absolute; see (2), 2nd paragraph.

(2) *Absolute Nominative*. The absolute nominative is not infrequent. It does not seem to be as closely related to the principal proposition as the accusative absolute. It limits the main verb by adding the time or some circumstance of the action, but it has the force of an additional contracted proposition of which the verb is sein understood rather than that of a subordinate clause. It is most common in descriptive style and usually adds some additional detail to render more complete the picture: *Endlich so kommt der Graf hergefahren, der Wagen schwer bepackt, voraus ein Reiter* (Schiller). *Ich geh ins Dorf hinaus, allein und nicht einmal mein Hund bei mir* (Auerbach). *Mein Freund! Am Tische sitzen wir zusammen, nichts zwischen uns als reiner, goldner Wein* (Freytag). *Die beiden Herren waren zugesprungen und hielten den jungen Mann am Arm, jeder von ihnen auf einer Seite* (Raabe).

We sometimes find it in case of a close relation with the preceding proposition, where the acc. is more common: *Dafür konnte keiner, unser (usually acc.) Herr Gott abgerechnet* (Raabe's *Odfeld*, chap. 21).

The absolute nominative is also used in subject clauses in connection with an appositive participle or adjective which serves

as a logical predicate. Such a clause, even though it may have a plural subject or several subjects, directs the attention only to a single act, a single scene or picture, or a condition of things, so that the verb of the main proposition is invariably in the singular: Das Schnupstuch vorgehalten half nichts (J. H. Voss) *the placing of the, &c.* Helm und Fahne durch Bildschnitzer und Vergulder behaglich über die Straßen getragen, hatte großes Aufsehen erregt (Goethe) *The carrying of. . . created a great stir.* Marthe und Margarete freudig und verrundert den Schmuß betrachtend, und Mephistopheles, der, tiefe Reverenzen ziehend, zu ihnen hereintritt, würde, gehörig ausgeführt, gewiß ein sehr niedliches Bild geben (id.). Der Zwiespalt eurer Herzen, erst neulich eingerichtet und gefügt, muß sanft bewahrt, gepflegt, gehütet werden (Shakespeare) *The peace established between you must, &c.* Diese sechs Punkte erfüllt war nichts Geringeres als der Sieg des Konstitutionalismus über die königliche Prærogative (*Brachvogel*) *The carrying out of these six points meant nothing less than, &c.* Einige Schurken weniger im Lande würde der Welt nichts schaden.

c. Uninflected participles are often used absolutely, referring to persons or things not mentioned at all in the principal proposition, but implied in the context: In die Stadt zurückgekehrt, beendigte ein Ball das Fest Having returned to the city, they closed up the festival with a ball. Here the subject of the sentence is Ball, which would regularly be the subject of the participle, but the context implies that it was the people, not the ball, that returned to the city. This construction is generally condemned by grammarians. In spite of their frequent protests it is sometimes used by good authors: Lustig davonfabrend, wurden die Eindrücke des Abends noch einmal ausgetauscht (*Riel's N. Nov.*, 154).

d. The infinitive with or without zu is often used absolutely; see 185. A. I. 5, II. 2. c. Also the infinitive with um zu is used absolutely: Wie viele interessante Entdeckungen haben in der neuesten Zeit allein Sweet und Jepsen gemacht, um nur zwei Namen zu nennen (*W. Franz in Englische Studien*, 32. Band, p. 232).

C. Interjections are often inserted in a proposition without having any grammatical connection with it, and exclamations often stand alone, filling no grammatical office. Such utterances assume the following forms:

a. They are uninflected words, or have the form of a sentence or a phrase: Huch! bin ich wieder hier I'll be back in a minute. „Er soll einundfünfzig Jahre alt sein!“ „Bitte (for ich bitte) sehr, erst fünfundvierzig“ He is said to be fifty-one years old. I beg your pardon though, he is only forty-five. Schwamm darüber! Let's forget it. See also 241.

b. Exclamations may be nouns, the person or thing which causes the feeling being (1) very often in the nom.: O ich Ungeheuer von einem Toren O what a monstrous fool I am! O mein verlorneß Glück! (2) In the gen. of cause: Ach, der vielen, vielen Gvatochter, die, erwachend, innerwerden, daß ihr Paradies nichts war als ein kurzer schöner Traum! (*Spielhagen's Freigeboren*, p. 11). O, des Glücks! O, der Bönne! (id., *Was will das werden*, IX, chap. xiii). O, der sonnigen Tage, mit keiner Wolke, weder am Himmel noch in ihrem Gemüt (*Rodenberg's Klostermann's Grundstück*, II). O der Eschlemmerei am frühen

Morgen! (H. Hoffmann's *Rittmeister*, II, p. 40). This construction was very common earlier in the period and even still frequent in the classics, and, as can be seen from the sentences quoted above, not yet entirely extinct. It is usually replaced to-day by the nom., as in (1), or the prepositional constructions in (5) below. The genitive is much more common than the nominative in exclamations as a word to strengthen the force of *leider* *alas*: Freilich starb er leiderdessen (Storm in *Westm.*, 259, 10 b). More frequently with Gottes: Leider Gottes haben wir seine Warnung verschmäht (M. Heyne's *Wörterbuch* under *leider*). Viel ist nicht geworden, leider Gott's (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, 2). (3) Sometimes in the dat.: O mir! (Schiller) Woe is me! O den trefflichen Menschen! (Goethe) O, the excellent people! Psui allem Tod! | Ei, ich will leben, ich! (Grillparzer's *Ein treuer Diener*, 4). Psui dir, or more commonly Psui über dich Shame on you! We sometimes find the acc. after psui: Psui dich! (Lienhard's *Eulenspiegels Heimkehr*, 1). The dative of Seele is quite common in the expression *meiner Seele*, or *meiner Seel'* (Fulda's *Die Zwillingschwester*, 3, 11) *upon my soul!* This is short for *bei meiner Seele!* The preposition is also found: *bei meiner armen Seele* (Lessing's *Minna*, 3, 7). The dative, too, is common after *weh(e)* to denote the person affected: *wehe mir!* woe is me!, *wehe mir Armen!*, or *wehe über mich Armen!*, or *o weh! ich Armer!* The dative is also often used to denote the person threatened: *Wehe ihm, wenn er zu kommen wagt!* In early N.H.G. the genitive was used to denote the cause of the feeling: *O weh des tages | Denn der Tag des GEMM ist nahe | und kommt wie ein verderben vom Allmächtigen* (Joel i. 15). The dative is also common after *heil* and *wohl*: *heil dem König!* Long live the King! God save the King! *Wohl ihm, daß er das noch erlebt hat!* How fortunate for him that he has lived to see that! (4) Only rarely in the acc.: *O mich Vergesslichen* (Lessing) Plague on my forgetfulness, lit. on me forgetful one. (5) Very often in the dat. after the prep. *mit* or the acc. after *über*: *Mit dir feigem Kerl!* (Goethe's *Götz*, 5, 5) O, you cowardly fellow! *Mit Eurem Golde!* (Schiller's *Tell*, 1, 3) Go away with your money! *Mit diesem Menschen!* Plague on this fellow! *Johannes: Aber du wirst doch noch 'n Rest Pietät für 'ne Feier aufbringen, die noch vor . . .* Braun: *Du mit deiner Pietät* (Hauptmann's *Einsame Menschen*, 1). *O über sie!* *O! O, sie sind nicht gekommen.*

CLASSES OF SENTENCES.

266. Sentences are divided according to their structure into three classes—simple, compound, and complex. A simple sentence contains but one independent proposition. A compound sentence contains two or more independent propositions. A complex sentence contains one independent proposition and one or more subordinate clauses. As the simple sentence has already been discussed, there remain only the compound and complex sentences to be treated.

The Compound Sentence.

267. The compound sentence consists of different independent propositions or members. These members may be two or more

simple sentences, or one member may be a simple sentence and the others complex sentences, or there may be any combination of simple and complex sentences. These members are usually connected in the following ways:

1. The members are connected by co-ordinate conjunctions. This manner of joining sentences is treated at considerable length under the head of Conjunctions, articles 233-236. It should be noticed in these articles that different conjunctions have different influence over the word-order in the members.

a. When several members have in common an element which has the same construction in each member this element need only be expressed once: *Die Eintracht baut, die Zwietracht zerstört das Haus.* The most important case of such contraction is when several subjects have one verb in common. The question of the number and person of the verb in such cases is treated in articles 253. I. 2 and II.

Note. Sometimes a pronoun, such as *das*, *dieses*, *was*, or a noun without an article, need only be expressed once, even if it has a different construction in the two members, providing, however, that the pronoun or noun have the same form for the different cases: *Nur das (eine) hielt er mit seinem ganzen Herzen fest, und konnte ihm nie ausgerebet werden. Was heißt und zu welchem Ende studiert man Universalgeschichte?* (title of one of Schiller's productions). See also 271. II. 3. a; 272. C. c.

2. The connection between the members may be made by means of demonstrative pronouns, or adverbs, which point to a preceding sentence, and thus bind the thought of the several propositions together: *Aus Vaterland, aus teure, schließ dich an; das halte fest mit deinem ganzen Herzen; hier sind die starken Wurzeln deiner Kraft.*

3. One member may have an adverb or conjunction which refers to a corresponding element in the other, and the several members may thus be bound firmly together: *Erst denke, dann rede! Bald (now) weint er, bald (now) lacht er.*

4. Sometimes there is no formal link binding the members together, the logical connection, however, forms a sufficient tie: *Kinder sind wie die Blumen, sie können nicht zu uns herauf, wir müssen uns zu ihnen niederbeugen, wenn wir sie erkennen wollen* (Wildenbruch's *Der Letzte*).

Upon close investigation it will become clear that such apparently independent propositions are not always absolutely independent. One of the propositions often stands logically in some adverbial relation to the other, such as that of place, time, manner, degree, cause, condition, concession, means: (Cause) *Du mußt gleich gehen; es ist spät.* (Condition) *Bald, es kenne nur jeder den eigenen, gönne dem andern | seinen Vorteil, so ist ewiger Friede gemacht* (Goethe's *Vier Jahreszeiten*, 74). (Concession) *Der Berg sei auch so hoch, or Sei der Berg auch so hoch, or Ist der Berg auch so hoch, ich ersteige ihn.*

The Complex Sentence.

Subordinate Clauses.

268. I. A complex sentence consists of an independent proposition and one or more subordinate clauses. These subordinate clauses are simply essential or subordinate elements of the independent

proposition that have been expanded into the full form of a clause. They thus stand in definite grammatical relation to the principal sentence and can according to their grammatical office be divided into: *subject, predicate, adjective, object, adverbial* clauses.

a. These clauses might be reduced to three if we divide them according to the part of speech they represent: (1) substantive clauses which represent a substantive, including *subject, predicate, object* clauses, and such adjective (271. 1) clauses as represent a noun in the attributive gen., or a prep. phrase; (2) adjective clauses; (3) adverbial clauses. The former classification, however, is for practical reasons usually employed in the following articles, while for the same reasons the latter classification is also at times used.

2. These subordinate clauses differ in form from the principal proposition in that they often have the transposed word-order and often have also different moods and tenses from those of the principal sentence, and hence will be treated more or less at length according to the difficulties they present. The discussion of the subjunctive which is given in articles 167–171 should be carefully studied before the subject of these subordinate clauses be taken up, as the subjunctive plays here quite a role. Subordinate conjunctions are given in 238.

a. Just as the pronoun *es* may anticipate the logical subject, so may also some pronoun or adverb anticipate a subordinate clause, or the pronoun or adverb may follow the subordinate clause, summing up in a word its contents: *Deffen erinnere ich mich nicht, daß Sie mir das gesagt haben. Dazu (for that purpose) hast du nicht das Geld, daß du es so verschwendest. Wer einmal lügt, dem glaubt man nicht, und wenn er auch die Wahrheit spricht.*

Subject Clause.

269. 1. The subject clause is the expansion of a noun used as the subject of the sentence: *Wer leicht glaubt (= Der Leichtgläubige) wird leicht betrogen.*

The subject clause is introduced by the conjunctions *daß that, ob whether, wenn if, when, weil because*, by the relatives *wer, was* (153. 1. (2)), *der, die, das, wie, worüber, worauf, &c.*, and in indirect questions by some interrogative pronoun or adverb: *Daß der Mond auf die Witterung Einfluß übt, ist eine verbreitete Ansicht. Ob sie kommen werden, steht dahin (remains to be seen). Es ist erfreulich, wenn man wohlerzogene Kinder sieht (= Der Anblick wohlerzogener Kinder ist erfreulich). Die Lichtenstein tut vornehm und ernst; das macht aber, weil der gestrenge Herr Vater da ist (Riehl). Wer Schlösser in die Luft erbaut, wird billig als ein Tor verlacht. Kein Lärm, keine Erschütterung war es, was (153. 1. (2)) mich geweckt hatte, sondern ein Qualm unerträglich verpesteter Luft (Suttner's *Die Waffen nieder!*, iv). Eine Lust ist's, wie er alles weckt und stärkt und neubelebt um sich herum. Worüber der eine sich ärgert, das freut den anderen. Worin er sich auszeichne, ist schwer zu sagen. Es ist nicht bekannt, woher diese Krankheit zu uns gekommen.*

a. There often stands in the principal proposition when it is preceded by the subject clause a demonstrative, which points to the preceding subordinate clause, and in a word sums up its contents, thus binding the two propositions more firmly together: *Worüber der eine sich ärgert, das freut den andern. Wen der*

Neid zu stürzen denkt, der wird erst von ihm erhoben. This demon. is usually necessary if its correlative in the subordinate clause is an adverb or a pronoun in a different case, as in the two sentences just given.

b. Often the sentence is introduced by the anticipative subject *es*, *das*, or *eines*, which points to a following subject clause, which is the real subject of the sentence: *Es ist zweifelhaft, ob er noch lebt. Es kann nicht fehlen, daß er daran gedacht* He must have thought of it. Und *das ist das Schrecklichste, daß einem die Welt so zu ist* (Fontane's *Effi*, XXXII). *Mag auch Entwicklung und Ausgang des Krieges in Ostasien noch gänzlich unabsehbar sein — eines ist heute schon sicher: Der erste Kanonenschuß in Ostasien hat in der ganzen Welt . . . das stärkste Echo erweckt* (*Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, 22. Feb. 1904). If the subject clause here is a relative clause the main verb agrees with the predicate instead of the subject. See 251. II. B. a. aa.

c. The connective *daß* is often omitted in subject clauses and the normal or the inverted word-order employed, especially when *es* is used in the main proposition as an anticipative subject: *Es ist besser, du gehst, or daß du gehst. Denn ist es zu leugnen?* Der Übermut der fremden Lehrer hat sich täglich erhöht (Goethe's *Egmont*, I). Sometimes when the anticipative *es* is omitted in accordance with older usage: Im Gegenteil, ist mir viel lieber, Sie bleiben (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, 3, 6).

The *daß* should not, however, be omitted if it is needed to make the thought clear, i. e. to indicate the oneness of the words in the subject clause and maintain the integrity of the group as a distinct grammatical element in contradistinction to other elements in the sentence: *Es ist ein Vorurteil, daß in der allgemeinen Verbreitung der elementaren Kenntnisse das Altertum hinter unserer Zeit wesentlich zurückgeblieben habe* (Mommsen's *Römische Geschichte*, III, chap. 14). The omission of *daß* in this sentence would bring a prep. phrase next to the noun *Vorurteil*, which at the first glance might lead us to seek for a connection between these two elements instead of connecting the phrase with the words that follow, where it properly belongs. The *daß* here points out the oneness of the following group of words. The remark in 272. C. f (toward end) concerning the dropping of *daß* also applies here.

2. *Mood.* The mood of the subject clause is :

a. Indicative when it is desired to represent the statement as a fact: *Es ist mehr als wahrscheinlich, daß der Dorf aus abgestorbenen Pflanzenteilen entsteht.*

b. The mood is the potential (168. II. G. a; 169. 2. G. a(1)), hortatory (168. I. 2. E. a), or optative (168. I. 2. E. b; 169. I. A) subjunctive, or the subjunctive of indirect discourse (170 and 171) or indirect question, if it is desired to represent the statement as questionable, possible, impossible, contrary to fact, or as the substance of the wish, thought, utterance, or question of another, or of one's self: *Es läßt sich nicht bezweifeln, daß er es tun könnte* (potential subj.) There is no doubt that he could do it. *Es gefällt dem Manne, daß er auch das Schwerste willig tue* (hortatory subj.; hence the will of the speaker). *Daß du an unserer Freude teilnimmst* (optative subj.), ist unser inniger Wunsch. *Mir wäre besser, ich wäre* (unreal optative; 169. I. A) *nie geboren!* *Es ist noch ungewiß, ob diese Nachricht sich bestätige* (subj. of indirect question). *Wer den Brief abgefaßt habe, ist noch nicht ermittelt worden.*

c. Also the imperative mood is found: „*Rehre um!*“ schallte es ihm entgegen. Also imperatives with the form of the perfect participle: *Frisch mitten durchgegriffen, das ist besser* (Schiller). *Zung gefreit hat niemand gereut. Frisch gewagt ist halb gewonnen.* As such imperatives are used here as a grammatical element in a sentence and not as an independent utterance, the original thought has become dim and they are often not felt as imperatives. Such participles often have to-day the force of an abstract substantive indicating a condition of things rather than that of an imperative; see 111. 7. h. (2). a. Thus by its present meaning this construction approaches closely to the absolute construction described in 265. B. b. (2), 3rd paragraph. There is often no formal

or other distinction between them : Feuer auf den Herd gemacht ist gut für Gewitter. Here Feuer may be the object of the imperative gemacht, or it may be construed as the absolute nominative according to 265. B. b. (2), 3rd paragraph.

3. *Abridged Form.* Clauses introduced by daß can be abridged by substituting the infin. construction, or a simple noun for the clause form if its subject is man, or is identical with some dependent word of the principal proposition : Daß man vorsichtig sei, ist ratsam ; or Vorsichtig zu sein ist ratsam ; or Vorsicht ist ratsam. Sich abfinden, Mutter, ist Menschenlos (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, I). Es ist die Pflicht treuer Untertanen, daß sie das Vaterland schützen ; or Das Vaterland zu schützen, ist treuer Untertanen Pflicht.

4. *Word-order.* As can be seen by the illustrative sentences, the word-order is usually the normal or the inverted, or, in case there is a connective, the transposed. The question order is also found : Ist es möglich : liebt sie mich ? (C. F. Meyer).

5. For the case where several subject clauses have the same relative in common, see 272. C. c.

Predicate Clause.

270. 1. The predicate clause is the expansion of a predicate noun : Widerwärtigkeiten sind für die Seele, was der Sturm für die Lust ist (= Läuterungsmittel).

The predicate clause is introduced by the relative *wer, was, der, die, das* (never *welcher*), the relative adverbs *wozu, &c.*, and the conjunctions *wie* and *daß*. Wir sind selten, was wir sein sollten. Ich bin nicht, der ich zu sein scheine. Seid, wozu die herrliche Natur euch machte. Er ist, wie er ist. Alles [ist], wie Sie gewünscht haben. Mein einziger Trost ist, daß es den andern auch nicht besser geht. Sein erstes Wort war : „ Sind Sie mit mir zufrieden ? “

2. The mood is usually as in the preceding sentences the indicative, but sometimes the subjunctive, especially the potential subjunctive (168. II. F. b ; 169. 2. F. b ; 168. II. G. a. (1) ; 169. 2. G. a. (1)), is found : Wer der Dicht-funft Stimme nicht vernimmt, ist ein Barbar, er sei, wer er sei. The potential subjunctive is quite common in indirect discourse : Die Antwort war : daß man, wenn Cäsar sogleich in seine Provinz zurückkehre, sich anheischig mache, die Entwaffnung Italiens . . . herbeizuführen (Mommsen's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. x).

3. Predicate clauses cannot usually be abridged except as in the first sentence in 1, by substituting some noun for the clause.

Adjective Clause.

271. Adjective clauses fall into two classes—attributive substantive clauses and attributive adjective clauses :

I. Attributive substantive clauses are the expansion of a noun in the attributive gen., or of a prep. phrase : Die Gewißheit, daß wir ewig leben werden (= eines ewigen Lebens), tröstet uns. Die Hoffnung, daß wir uns wiedersehen werden (= auf Wiedersehen), erleichtert die Trennung. In clauses of result introduced by daß the grammatical relation cannot be explained as that of a gen. or a prepositional construction, and hence such clauses are not real attribute clauses. Originally such a clause stood in apposition with a post-positive article of the governing noun. Thus Er hat das Alter, daß er für sich selbst reden kann was originally : Er hat Alter, das : er kann für sich selbst reden. In course of time daß (now daß) became a stereotyped form,

so that it can now be used even if the governing noun is masc. or fem., and also when an indefinite article, demonstrative, or adverb is used : Sie haben ja hier einen Qualm, daß man ersticken möchte. Such clauses may now be classed as adverbial clauses of quality or degree. For further examples see 276. C ; 277. 2.

Attributive substantive clauses are usually introduced by daß (see 238. 2. d), or the interrogative pronouns or particles, such as was, wer, ob, wo, wie, wann, &c. : Die Behauptung, daß die Erde sich drehe, setzte Galilei manchen Verfolgungen aus. Wenn ein offener Sinn für die Schönheiten der Natur verliehen ist, dessen (268. 2. a) Leben wird reich an Freuden sein. Immer wieder dazwischen waren ihre Gedanken abgerrt, denn sie hatte Angst, was da kommen möchte. Die Ungewißheit, ob sein Sohn glücklich aus dem Kriege heimkehren werde, ließ ihm keine Ruhe. Können Sie mir Nachricht geben, wo er sich aufhält ? Erst im Unglück gelangt man zu der Einsicht, wie schwer ein Freund in der Not wiegt. Die Hoffnung, daß wir ihm helfen werden, verleiht ihm Mut. Sein Verzicht darauf, daß er zuerst rede, hat allgemein befriedigt.

a. The mood is usually indicative, but the subjunctive, especially that of indirect discourse (see sentence above beginning Die Behauptung), or indirect question (see sentences above beginning with Immer and Die Ungewißheit), often occurs. See also 168. II. G. b ; 169. 2. G. b ; 168. I. 2. B. (1). The subjunctive is also often found in clauses which are the object of a preposition, as in the last sentence of the examples given above. Also the imperative mood or a simple infinitive with the force of an imperative may be used : Dieser P. P. hat nur einen Gedanken : jung sein ! Mitmachen mit der Jugend ! (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, I, 5).

b. When the thought or feeling of some one is reported indirectly, daß is often dropped, and the subordinate clause has the order of a principal proposition : Im Altertum war die Ansicht des Thales, die Erde sei eine große, auf dem Wasser schwimmende Scheibe, eine weit verbreitete.

c. *Abridgment.* Clauses introduced by daß may, when no ambiguity would arise, be replaced by the infin. construction : Jetzt ist der Zeitpunkt da, von diesen Papieren öffentlichen Gebrauch zu machen (= daß man von diesen Papieren öffentlichen Gebrauch mache). A predicate nom. remains in the nom. in the contracted clause : Er hatte das Lob, ein schöner Mann zu sein (Freitag's *Rittmeister*, chap. vi).

II. The attributive adjective clause is the expansion of an attributive adjective : Der Mensch, welcher ernstlich strebt (= Der ernstlich strebende Mensch), gelangt zu hohen Zielen. It is usually introduced by the relatives der, welcher, was (153. 1. (1), (3)), dergleichen, or dergleichen (161. 2), or by a relative adverb, such as so (153. 4), wie (153. 3. B), als (153. 3. C. a), wo, worin, worunter, &c., which are sometimes separated when compound (see 153. 2, toward end) : Die Stätte, die ein guter Mann betrat, ist eingeweiht. Man war sehr unschlüssig über die Art, wie der Krieg geführt werden sollte. For the use of different relatives see articles 150–154, where this subject, so difficult for foreigners, is treated at considerable length and many illustrative sentences are given. The conjunction daß is also used relatively : Es sind drei Stunden, daß er fort ist. Es sind zwölf Jahre, daß ich hier wohne. Es sind drei Nächte, daß ich nicht geschlafen habe. For use of daß here see also 153. 3. C. e.

1. As in English, the relative pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender and number, while its case is determined by the office it performs in the clause.

a. Synesis of gender. If the antecedent is a common neut., fem., or masc. noun representing a male or female the relative is usually neut., fem., or masc. according to grammatical gender, but if the antecedent is the diminutive of a proper name the relative has, as a rule, natural gender. For fuller explanation see 263. I. 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.

Synesis of number. For usage here see 263. II. 2, last paragraph.

b. The relatives *daß* and *welches* were earlier in the period employed like *daß* (129. 2. C. (1)) as the subject of the clause, remaining unchanged for all genders and numbers; see 151. 2. *b.*

c. The relative is in the pl., although its antecedent is in the sing., if it refers to the antecedent, not as to an individual, but as to a class or genus: *Das gebräuchlichste Gewand ist ein blauer Samtrock, von denen 20 auf einen von Tuch femmen* The most common garment is a blue satin coat, of which there are 20 to one of cloth.

d. In both English and German the relative often agrees incorrectly with some word closely connected with the antecedent instead of agreeing with the antecedent itself, as this word lies nearer the thought and feeling of the speaker or writer than the grammatical antecedent: *That is one of the most valuable books that has appeared in any language.* *Das Gleichnis ist eines von denen, welches der Dichter mehr als einmal braucht* (Lessing). *Eine der penibelsten Aufgaben, die meiner Tätigkeit auferlegt werden konnte* (Goethe). *So viel steht fest, daß unsere heimischen Kartoffelkloße eines der wunderbarsten Gerichte vorstellen, das die Welt kennt* (H. Seidel's *Thüringische Kartoffelkloße*). German grammarians usually condemn this usage.

e. A peculiar kind of attraction called *trajection* often takes place in relative clauses. This consists in conforming the relative pronoun or adverb to the construction required in the following dependent clause instead of to that required in its own clause: *Er besitzt das Buch, aus welchem du meinst, daß er viel lernen kann* instead of *Er besitzt das Buch, von welchem du meinst, daß er daraus viel lernen kann*. This construction is very common with Luther and Lessing, and is still sometimes used especially in clauses introduced by *wo* or *wie* to avoid a clumsy circumlocution: *Er ging in eine Restauration, wo er mußte, daß er seinen Freund treffen werde* instead of: *Er ging in eine Restauration, von der er mußte, daß er seinen Freund dort treffen werde*. *Denn ein Geist hat nicht fleisch und kein | wie jr (ihr) sehet das (daß) | ich habe* (Luke xxiv. 39) instead of *Ein Geist hat nicht fleisch und Wein, von denen ihr seht, daß ich sie habe*.

2. If the relative has the same case in a number of successive clauses dependent upon the same word, it may be expressed in the first clause and understood in the others, or for rhetorical effect it may be retained in all: *Ich fandte ihm einen Mann, welcher in die Sache eingeweiht war, die Gegend genau kannte, und sich bei einer früheren Gelegenheit zuverlässig gezeigt hatte.* If the relative be in the gen. it is usually repeated with each clause: *Aber einem romantischen Volke war eine Religion angemessen, deren prächtiger Pomp die Sinne gefangen nimmt, deren geheimnisvolle Rätsel der Phantasie einen unendlichen Raum eröffnen, deren vornehmste Lehren sich durch malerische Formen in die Seele einschmeicheln.* For the rhetorical repetition of the relative see 152. 2.

3. If the relative in adjective clauses has a different case in a number of successive clauses dependent upon the same word, it is now usually repeated each time with its proper case form, though many exceptions can be found in a careless style and in earlier

periods where the influence of the grammarian was not so strong as to-day: Das Schloß war schon mit mehreren Unglücklichen besetzt, denen man nicht helfen, die man nicht erquicken konnte. Either der or welcher can here be used, but they do not usually alternate with each other. See 152. 2.

a. Violations of this rule are not infrequent even in the best authors when the relative has the same form for different cases: Dieses Anerbieten, das ich für ein leeres Kompliment halten durfte und für mich höchst reizend war (Goethe). To-day when the grammatical conscience is so aroused such violations are becoming less frequent in choice language, but in one case, namely, to emphasize the idea of oneness and identity, the relative *was* is used but once even by good writers: Ich muß zu dem übergehen, was hiermit zusammenhängt und ich dir vorzulegen habe (G. Keller). The repetition of *was* emphasizes the idea of separation.

b. Very frequently we find in the best authors and in the language of the common people a personal, possessive, or demonstrative pronoun, or demonstrative adverb in the second of two relative clauses instead of the grammatically correct relative pronoun or adverb: Goethe: Die Elemente sind als feilsale Gegner zu betrachten, mit denen wir ewig zu kämpfen haben und sie nur durch die höchste Kraft des Geistes bewältigen (instead of die wir nur durch die höchste Kraft des Geistes bewältigen). Schiller: Sprüche, die der Wandersmann verweilend liest und ihren Sinn bewundert (instead of deren Sinn er bewundert). Mommsen: eine schändliche Gewalttat, vor der jedermann schauerte und sich dabei der fürchterlichen Herrschaft des Schreckens erinnert. Wir bestellen bei unserem Meister Silberschmied einen neuen Becher, an dem er keinen Gewinn zu nehmen verspricht, sondern ihn so wertvoll als möglich liefert (Keller's *Züricher Novellen*, II. 28). The attitude of the literary language is at present not as favorable to this construction as formerly.

c. Often we find a relative in one clause, but do not discover in the following clause, which is coordinate with it, a relative expressed or understood: Marianne schaute mit einem traurigen Blick nach ihm auf, den Wilhelm nicht bemerkte, und in seiner Erzählung fortfuhr (Goethe). Darauf wagte Anton den Hals des Schwarzen zu streicheln, was der Penn wehlwollend aufnahm und seinerseits dem Fremdling die Recktaschen bereich (Freitag). In such sentences which cannot be translated literally the second clause has the word-order of a subordinate clause and a subject in common with the first clause, but there is no relative pronoun or conjunction that connects it to the main proposition, and it is in fact logically an independent statement. This construction, common alike in the classics and in the language of the common people, but at present not so frequent in the literary language, is an ungrammatical but convenient way of adding to a preceding clause an additional proposition containing the same subject, without formally constructing a new sentence or a grammatical subordinate clause.

4. Mood. The mood is usually the indicative, but also the subjunctive is found, especially the subjunctive of indirect discourse, the optative subjunctive (for examples see 168. I. 2. D. *a* and *b*), the potential subjunctive in all its uses, especially, however, that one known as the *subjunctive of modest or cautious statement*, which softens the broad, sweeping negative statement of the principal proposition: Die Regierung der Vereinigten Staaten beschwerte sich über die Kantung jenseitiger Armen, welche manche europäische Regierung fortschickte (subj. of indirect discourse). Sie grubelte über die Worte, die er zu ihr sprechen konnte (potential subj.), und über ihre Antworten. Noch nie ist eine Unwahrheit gesprochen worden, die nicht früher oder später nachteilige Folgen gehabt hätte (subj. of cautious statement). For other illustrative examples of the potential subjunctive see 168. II. C, D, F. *a*; 169. 2. C, D, F. *a*. In elevated diction the *sanguine subjunctive of purpose* (see 168. I. 2. B. (3)) is sometimes found:

Ihr wünscht euch einen tugendhaften Sohn, der eures Hauptes heil'ge Locken ehre (Schiller). The *unreal subjunctive of purpose* is quite common; see 169. 1. C. (3).

5. For the person of the verb in relative clauses, see 151. 3 B. a, b, c.

6. *Abridgment.* A relative clause can only be abridged when the relative is the subject of the clause. Its contracted form is that of an appositive noun, adj., or part.: Die Römer, [welche] ein tapferes und mächtiges Volk [waren], haben einst die Herrschaft über den halben Erbkreis besessen. Ein Morgen, [der] rot und golden [war], hat uns den Mai gebracht. Gott lohnt Gutes, [das] hier getan [wird], auch hier noch. Eine Sache, [die] zu oft gesagt [wird], tut den Ohren weh.

7. *Spurious Adjective Clauses.* Propositions which are in form dependent adjective clauses, being introduced by *was* (referring to the thought as a whole), a relative pronoun (*der* or *welcher*), or a relative adverb (*wofür*, &c.), are often in fact independent propositions, as they do not limit the antecedent, but add an independent thought, and may even contain a coördinate conjunction: Sie versprachen, ihm in allen Nöten beizustehen, *was* sie auch getreulich ausführten. Mit dem notwendigen Geldumtausch kam der Wechselhandel auf, der den Niederländern eine neue fruchtbare Quelle des Reichthums eröffnete. Wir nahmen den Weg über den Berg, wodurch wir eine Stunde ersparten.

8. *Word-order.* The attributive adjective clause usually has the transposed word-order, but explanatory clauses which are not introduced by a connective have normal word-order: Der Unglückliche — es war Charitten — klagte sich einen Augenblick mit Händen und Füßen an das Geseis (C. F. Meyer).

Object Clause.

272. Object clauses are divided into *genitive*, *dative*, *accusative*, and *prepositional phrase* (representing a noun governed by a prep.) clauses:

A. Genitive clause. The genitive clause is usually introduced by *daß* (see 240. a), and the interrogatives *was*, *ob*, *wie*, &c., and can be used to replace any gen., whether it be the object of a verb or an adjective: Ich erinnere mich nicht, *daß* ich dies gesagt habe (= dieser Worte). Der Träge ist nicht wert, *daß* man ihn unterstütze. Ich erinnere mich nicht mehr genau, *ob* er sich dieses scharfen Ausdrucks bediente.

a. Mood. The mood is usually indic., but, as in the following sentences, the subjunctive of indirect discourse or indirect question, and the potential subjunctive, may be used: Karl V. von Spanien konnte sich rühmen, die Sonne gehe (subj. of indirect discourse) in seinem weiten Reiche nicht unter. Er war ungewiß, *wo* er mehr Ansehen hätte (unreal potential form of the subj. of indirect question), *ob* in dem Feld, *ob* in dem Kabinette. Er war nicht gewiß, *ob* er es tun könnte (same kind of subj. as in the preceding sentence). Ich erinnere mich nicht, *daß* ich ihm einen Besuch gemacht hätte (unreal potential; very common after a negative proposition).

b. Tense. The idiomatic use of tenses in indirect discourse demands especial care, and hence this subject has been described at length in article 171. 2.

c. When the thought or feeling of some one is reported indirectly *daß* is often dropped, and the subordinate clause has the order of a principal proposition, as in the first sentence in *a*, above. The use of *daß* is regulated by the principle described in C. f, below.

d. Abridgment. Those clauses which are introduced by *daß* may be replaced by the infinitive construction, provided the subject of the clause is identical with the subject or object of the principal proposition: Ich bin

nicht wert, daß ich dir die Schuhriemen auflöse; or Ich bin nicht wert, dir die Schuhriemen aufzulösen. Ich erinnere mich nicht, daß ich ihm einen Besuch gemacht habe or hätte (see *a*, above, last sentence); or Ich erinnere mich nicht, ihm einen Besuch gemacht zu haben.

B. Dative Clause. This dative clause is the expansion of a noun or adjective-substantive, which is the dat. object of a verb or adjective: Wer keinen Rat annimmt (= dem Eigeninnigen), dem kann nicht geholfen werden. They are usually introduced by a relative pronoun or adverb: Wer sich nicht nach der Decke streckt, dem bleiben die Füße unbedeckt.

a. There are few dat. clauses which do not have in the principal proposition a demonstrative or other pronominal adjective in the dat. referring to the contents of the subordinate clause. Only when the relative itself is in the dat., can the demon. be dropped: Der Arzt hilft, wenn er helfen kann.

b. Mood. The mood is usually indic., but sometimes the subjunctive, especially the *concessive* (168. I. 2. A) subjunctive, is used: Rimmermehr enthülle das Geheimnis, wenn es auch sei.

c. Abridgment. Such clauses may often be clumsily abridged by substituting an adjective or participial substantive with its modifiers for the clause form. Thus the sentence in B, above, becomes Dem sich nicht nach der Decke Streckenden bleiben die Füße unbedeckt.

C. Accusative Clause. The accusative clause is the expansion of a noun in the acc., object of some verb or adjective: Ich weiß nicht, wo er sich befindet (= den Ort seines gegenwärtigen Aufenthalts). After verbs which govern two accusatives, one of the person and one of the thing, either the object of the person or the object of the thing may be replaced by a clause: Lehre, die dir folgen wollen (= deine Jünger), deine Wege. Lehre mich, was du von ihm gelernt hast (= die von ihm empfangene Wissenschaft). Accusative clauses are usually introduced by daß, sometimes after verbs of *perceiving* and *relating* by wie = daß, often by relative pronouns and adverbs, and in indirect questions by the interrogative particles ob, wann, wo, wie, warum, weshalb, &c., or the interrogative pronouns: Wir versicherten ihm, daß wir bereit seien, ihm zu helfen. Ich sah, wie (= daß) er auf und abging. Was Hände bauten, können Hände stürzen. Ich will doch sehen, wie (here interrog. particle used to introduce an indirect question) es ablaufen wird. Er fragte, weshalb ich nicht gekommen sei (direct: Weshalb sind Sie nicht gekommen).

a. Often the neut. es, eines, or a demonstrative pronoun in the principal proposition serves as an anticipative object pointing to the following subordinate clause, which as an appositive explains it, and is in fact the real object: Ich mag's und will's nicht glauben, daß mich der Mar verlassen kann (Schiller). Ich weiß es, daß er nicht Wert hält. Sagt mir nur eins: ob er im Bann ist (Hauptmann's *Der arme Heinrich*, 2, 1). Eines nur entbehre ich mitummer: daß ich nicht mehr vom frühesten Morgen | für ihn schaffen darf (Fulda's *Der Talisman*, 2, 4). Den schreckt der Berg nicht, wer auf ihm geboren.

b. Attraction. Here and elsewhere in substantive clauses a relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the preceding demonstrative, which is then, however, always understood and never formally expressed: Sie eilt durch den Hof zum Teregang, dem Wanderer zu bieten Schutz und Rast, und [den,] wen's (for wer es) auch sei, zu wärmen und zu laßen (Redwitz's *Amaranth*).

Sometimes, especially in early N.H.G., and still in the language of the

common people, the opposite construction is found, namely, a noun or pronoun is attracted into the case of a following relative: Ein König | der die Armen treulich (treulich) richtet | des thron wird ewiglich bestehen (Proverbs xxix. 14).

c. If several consecutive subject or accusative clauses have the same relative in common it need only be used once, when the relative is in the same case in the different clauses. If the relative is in different cases in the different clauses it should be repeated. If, however, the relative should happen to have the same form for two different cases, usage differs somewhat according to the meaning. The relative is used but once when it is desired to emphasize the idea of oneness and identity, and is repeated to make prominent the idea of separation: Was geschieht und ich nicht hindern kann (Lessing). Jetzt biet' ich dir alles an, was ich bin und was ich habe (Hebbel's *Maria Magdalena*, 2, 5). The latter sentence represents the offering as a double one, but if we should desire to represent here life and material wealth as *one* single offering we could say: Jetzt biet' ich dir alles an, was ich bin und habe. Und was wir find und haben, hat in ihm (i. e. dem Christentum) seine Wurzel und Kraft (Spielhagen's *Was will das werden*, I, chap. ix).

d. *Mood*. The mood is usually indicative, but the subjunctive of *indirect discourse* and *indirect question* is frequently found.

e. *Tense*. The idiomatic use of tenses in indirect discourse demands especial care, and hence this subject has been discussed at length in 171. 2.

f. When the thought or feeling of some one is reported indirectly daß is often dropped, and the subordinate clause has the order of the principal proposition: Fichte behauptet, der Mensch könne, was er wolle, und wenn er sage, er könne nicht, so wolle er nicht. Den Brauenburg solltest du in Ehren halten, sag' ich dir (Goethe's *Egmont*, 3). Ich fürchte, ich falle. As in 269. 1. c the daß should not be omitted if it is necessary to make the thought clear, i. e. to indicate the oneness of the words in the object clause and maintain its integrity as a distinct grammatical element in contradistinction to the other elements in the sentence: Die Erfahrung bewies, daß die römische Symmachie trotz ihrer scheinbar loseren Nüßung gegen Pyrrhos zusammenhielt wie eine Mauer aus Felsenstücken (Mommson's *Römische Geschichte*, III, chap. 1). If the daß were omitted in this sentence it would bring die römische Symmachie next to the verb, which might at the first glance lead us to seek for a grammatical relation between these two elements instead of connecting the noun with the words that follow. The same principle is also observed in English. Where ambiguity would not arise the daß is naturally dropped in German in forceful language or a lively style. According to 284. I. 3. a the transposed word-order presents the idea dispassionately as a compact unit and hence is less suited to a lively style than is the word-order of the principal proposition which admits of greater freedom in directing the attention to particular words and placing them according to their logical importance or emotional value.

The connective is always omitted in direct quotations: Das Volk rief: Es lebe der Kaiser.

g. *Abridgment*. An acc. clause can be abridged only when its subject is identical with the subject or object (expressed or understood) of the principal proposition. The clause may then be abridged to a single noun or to an infn. with zu: Ich rate Ihnen, daß Sie vorsichtig seien; or Ich rate Ihnen Vorsicht; or Ich rate Ihnen, vorsichtig zu sein.

h. The principal proposition is often suppressed so that the subordinate clause becomes the bearer of the thought: Laura — daß das Kind nur recht, recht was Gutes bekommt (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, 3, 7) Laura, see to it that, or I desire that, &c. See also 169. I. A.

D. *Prepositional Phrase Clause*. This clause is the expansion of a prepositional object: Die Eltern erfreuen sich darüber, daß ihre

Kinder Fortschritte machen (= über die Fortschritte ihrer Kinder). This clause is introduced by daß (see 240. a), ob, and the relative and interrogative pronouns, or the relative or interrogative adverbs womit, &c. Es bleibt dabei, daß wir reisen. Es fehlt viel daran, daß ich zufrieden sein könnte. Es ist dafür gesorgt, daß die Bäume nicht in den Himmel wachsen. Ob du der klügste seist, daran ist wenig gelegen. Es fehlt ihm dazu, daß er ein Staatsmann hätte sein können, der scharfe, klare Blick in die Zukunft. This clause is in colloquial language also introduced by weil: Das kommt da'von, Herr Förster, weil ich früher Totengräber gewesen bin (Baumbach's *Das Habichtsfräulein*, III).

a. In the principal proposition there is usually a demon. adverb, darüber, dafür, &c., pointing to the following clause. If the subordinate clause precedes, either a demon. adverb or pronoun can stand in the principal clause: Was dieser Zeuge beim ersten Verhör ganz Unglaubliches angegeben hatte, auf dem (or da'rauf) bestand er jetzt.

b. *Mood.* The mood is usually indic., but various forms of the optative and the potential subjunctive are also used: Alle rieten ihm dazu, daß er das Amt trotz der damit verbundenen Schwierigkeiten annehme. Er denkt darüber nach, wie er fortkomme.

c. If the clause is introduced by daß, it is more often abridged to an infin. with zu when the subject of the principal proposition and that of the subordinate clause are identical, and sometimes when the subjects are not identical, provided no ambiguity may arise: Er hat die größte Lust dazu, uns auf unserer Reise zu begleiten. In the literature of the latter half of the present period um zu is preferred here to the simple zu when it is desired to emphasize the idea of a purpose, end, result: Um das fertig zu machen, dazu gehört noch Arbeit. Es fehlt mir nur an mir, um recht beglückt zu sein (Goethe). Pompejus fehlte seine Bedingung um nach der Krone zu greifen als die erste von allen: der eigene königliche Mut (Mommsen's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. 3). Es gehörte die ganze Unabhängigkeit und Energie . . . der Herzogin dazu, um nicht an dem Unternehmen zu scheitern (Rodenberg). Es fehlte ihm, um Staatsmann zu sein, der scharfe, klare Blick in die Zukunft (Dürckheim). Das Ministerium besaß nicht die nötige Kühnheit, um den König von seinem Eigensinn abzuwenden (id.). Der folgende Tag wurde benützt, um die Stadt kennen zu lernen (id.). The um zu here is used instead of the older construction with simple zu, as the infinitive with zu is employed so often as a nominative, genitive, or accusative that it no longer conveys vividly the idea of a prepositional object indicating the direction of the activity, or the idea of a purpose, end. The history of this construction is given more fully in 281. b. *Note.* Grammarians do not endorse unreservedly this use of um zu instead of zu.

Adverbial Clause.

273. I. An adverbial clause is the expansion of an adverbial element into the full form of a proposition with its own subject and predicate: Biege den Baum, so lange er noch jung ist (= früh, or in seiner Jugend).

a. The adverbial clause is introduced by a subordinate conjunction (full list of them in 238. 3). In the principal proposition a demon. adverb often points to the adverbial clause: Wo viel Licht [ist], da ist viel Schatten.

b. The mood and tense of the adverbial clause are subject to the general rules for mood and tense.

c. Adverbial clauses may often be abridged, especially when the subject of the principal proposition and that of the subordinate clause are identical. The abridged form is either that of an infinitive phrase, or an appositive noun, adj. or participle: Der Knabe besucht die Schule, damit er sich nützliche Kenntnisse erwerbe; or um sich nützliche Kenntnisse zu erwerben. Obgleich er Sieger war; or Obgleich Sieger, mußte er doch das Schlachtfeld räumen. Weil er krank und elend war; or Krank und elend, sehnte er sich nach dem Tode. Wenn sie zu weit getrieben wird, or Zu weit getrieben, verfehlt die Strenge ihres weisen Zwecks. Während ich das bei mir dachte; or Dies bei mir denkend, schlief ich ein.

Note. This adverbial apposition is especially frequent in case of a substantive preceded by the conjunction *als*. Such a noun may be used instead of a clause to express the following adverbial relations: 1. Time: Cicero entdeckte als Consul die Verschwörung des Catilina. 2. Manner: Er lebte als Christ. 3. Degree (containing a restriction): Als (in so far as) Hier gehört der Mensch der Erde an, als Geist einer höheren Welt. 4. Cause or reason: Als treuer Diener wollte uns Joseph nicht verlassen. 5. Condition: Wer dir als Freund nicht nützen kann, kann als Feind dir schaden. 6. Concession: Als Anfänger behandelt er die Sache doch mit Meisterschaft. 7. Purpose or end: Er zog seinen Freund als Mitarbeiter heran. Willomitzer in his *Deutsche Grammatik*, p. 163, from which the preceding has been taken almost literally, adds one more relation, that of attendant circumstance, which might be included under the head of manner: Er stand mir als treuer Ratgeber zur Seite.

2. Adverbial clauses are subdivided into classes corresponding to those of adverbial elements—clauses of *place*, *time*, *manner*, *degree*, *cause*, *condition*, *concession*, *purpose* or *end*, *means*, *material*.

Clause of Place.

274. A clause of place indicates the place where the action of the principal verb occurs (for conjunctions see 238. 3. A): Nicht überall, wo Wasser ist, sind Frösche; aber wo man Frösche hört, ist Wasser. Woher der befruchtende Regen strömt, (daher) stürzt auch der verheerende Blitzstrahl. Wohin das Christentum drang, da erloschen vor ihm alle Leichenbrände. Dorthin wendet euch, von wannen alle Hilfe kommt (Uhland). Wo! dem | der nicht wandelt im Rat der Gottlosen | Noch tritt auff den Weg der Sünder | Noch sitzt da die Spötter sitzen (Ps. i. 1).

a. The demonstratives *da*, *dort*, *daher*, *dorthier*, *dahin*, *dorthin* often stand in the principal proposition, as can be seen from the above examples.

b. The mood in these clauses is usually the indicative, but the subjunctive of a historical tense is not infrequent; see 169. 2. I.

c. *Abridgment.* These clauses cannot usually be abridged, except sometimes by substituting a simple adverb: Wohin ich blicke, (or überall) redest du mit Wohlthat mir und Güte zu (Seume).

Clause of Time.

275. A temporal clause limits the time of the action of the principal verb, which is thus represented as taking place simultaneously with, or before, or after that of the temporal clause (for conjunctions see 238. 3. B): Ich erschrak, als ich ihn sah. Es schließt

(historical present) sich hinter ihm und als er sich umwendet, um von dem Schließer Auskunft zu erhalten, weist ihn dieser mit höhnischen Worten hinweg (E. Martin's *Wolframs von Eschenbach Parzival*, II, p. xxiii). Was wir gemeinhin Ehre nennen, das ist wohl nichts weiter als der Schatten, den wir werfen, wenn die Sonne der öffentlichen Achtung uns beschneit (Sudermann's *Die Ehre*, 2, II). Wenn sich der Winter nähert, verlassen uns die Zugvögel. Wenn Sie fertig sind, möchte ich gern mit Ihnen sprechen. Ach, da ich irrte, hatt' ich viel Gespielen, da ich dich (die Wahrheit) kenne, bin ich fast allein (Goethe). Das Eisen muß geschmiedet werden, weil (now während or indem) es glüht (Schiller). Solange die Nationen ein gesondertes Dasein führen, wird es Streitigkeiten geben, welche nur mit den Waffen geschlichtet werden können (Moltke). Man kann meist so lange nicht genügend über eine That urtheilen, als man die Beweggründe dazu nicht kennt. Ihr Anhang wird nicht ehe (now usually eher) zu bändigen sein, bis wir sie vor den Augen der Welt zu nichte gemacht . . . haben (Goethe's *Götz*, 3, 1). Nicht eher, als bis (after nicht eher more common than simple bis) er sie von Weindünsten taumeln sah, gab er ihnen die Schrift zur Unterzeichnung (Schiller). Man muß nicht eher fliegen wollen, als bis einem die Flügel gewachsen sind. Er kam dem König mit Anerbietungen des Friedens entgegen, welche aber bloß dazu dienen sollten, den Lauf seiner Waffen so lange, bis Hülfe herbei käme, zu verzögern (Schiller). Sie gelobten einander, sich nicht zu unterwerfen, bis nicht (see 223. XI. B. a. (3)) der unterste Stein zu oberst gekommen wäre (Ranke's *D. Gesch. im Z. d. R.*, IV, 538). Ich bin wie der Lehrling beim Konditor gewesen, den man Zuckerzeug naschen läßt, bis daß er sich den Magen daran verdirbt (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, 3, 5). 's wird keiner böß, der nicht, bevor er's ward, erst gut gewesen (Grillparzer). Man pflegt in einem wichtigen Werke zu blättern, ehe man es ernstlich zu lesen anfängt (Lessing). Sie ist so bescheiden und so dankbar, sie hat gesagt, sie könnte keinen Bissen zu sich nehmen, ehe sie nicht (223. XI. B. a. (3)) dem Hausherrn, der sie so gütig aufgenommen, gedankt hätte (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, 3, 6).

a. Sometimes the clause which defines the time of the principal action assumes the form of the principal proposition, while the principal proposition takes on the form of the temporal clause: Nicht sobald hatte er Zeit gewonnen, sich zu verschanzen, als er von spanischen Reitern überfallen wurde No sooner had he found time to intrench himself than he was attacked by Spanish cavalry. Kaum hatte er mich erblickt, als er laut aufschrie. Es schlug eben zwölf Uhr, als man plötzlich einen Schuß hörte. Such temporal clauses as in English announce some unexpected or important event.

b. The indicative and subjunctive are employed according to the rules generally observed for their use; see 169. 2. I. After the conj. bis notice that the verb depending upon a verb in a historical tense is in the subjunctive, to indicate the continuance of an action up to a certain point in the future with doubtful result: Sie wollten ausharren, bis der Entsatz käme They desired to wait till relief might come. The subjunctive is usually in a historical tense, but occasionally the subjunctive of a principal tense is found in accordance with older usage; see 168. I. 2. B. (3)). If the governing verb is in a principal tense the dependent verb is in the indicative, although the subjunctive was common here in early N.H.G.: Sie wollten warten, bis der Entsatz kammt. Ich will das Schwert hundert (hinter) sie schiden | bis das (daß) aus mit jnen (ihnen) sey (sei) — Jeremiah ix. 16. The use of the indic. after a

principal tense here shows that the tendency at present is to look at the action as actually completed, while in earlier periods it was regarded as only contemplated or desired.

c. Abridgment. These clauses can usually be abridged only when their subject is identical with that of the principal proposition. The clause then may become a participle, adjective, or substantive appositive: Wenn er kaum einer Gefahr entronnen ist, or Kaum einer Gefahr entronnen, stürzt er sich in die andere. Daß er in den Sitzungen, wenn behufs der Abstimmung aus dem leichten Schlummer geweckt, zu sagen pflegte (Bismarck). Als er arm war, or Arm, hatt' er sich noch satt gegessen; seitdem er reich geworden, or Reich, hungert er bei halbem Essen. Und so saß er (, nachdem er) eine Leiche (geworden), eines Morgens da (Schiller).

Sometimes when the temporal clause has a different subject from that of the principal proposition it can be abridged, but only by substituting a prep. phrase for the clause: Wenn die Not am größten ist, so ist Gottes Hilfe am nächsten, or In der größten Not ist Gottes Hilfe am nächsten.

Clause of Manner.

276. A clause of manner describes the manner of the action of the principal verb. This clause may define the action in each of the three following ways:

A. The action of the principal verb is compared with that in the subordinate clause. The clause is introduced by the conjunctions enumerated in **238. 3. C. a.** In **239** these conjunctions are treated at length, where also illustrative sentences are given which show the use of the moods. For moods see also **168. II. B. a, b** and **169. 2. B. a, b.**

B. The action of the principal verb is accompanied by some attendant circumstance which is contained in the subordinate clause. The clause is then introduced by *indem*: Indem er sich mit dem Rücken an den Baum lehnte, verteidigte er sich tapfer gegen die an Zahl überlegenen Feinde. Das Tier zog sich zurück, indem es mich fortwährend unverwandt anblickte. Instead of a clause introduced by *indem* we often find the accusative absolute construction here; see **265. B. b. (1).**

a. The clause may be abridged by substituting a participle for the clause form, provided the subject of the clause and that of the principal proposition are identical: Er grüßte, indem er sich tief verbeugte, or sich tief verbeugend. A prepositional phrase may often take the place of the clause: Ein größerer Haufe marschierte in der Richtung der Klosterwiese, um, mit Vermeidung eines Gefechtes (= indem er ein Gefecht vermied), die dort sich versammelnden andern Ritter zur Seite zu locken (Riehl's *Der Dachs auf Lichtmess*). Unter heftigem Weinen (or heftig weinend) drückte er mir die Hand.

C. The action of the principal verb is followed by a result which is contained in the subordinate clause (for conjunctions see **238. 3. C. c**; for the origin of the *daß* clause see **271. I**). Exs.: Handle auch im Verborgenen so, daß es jedermann sehen könnte. Er sprach mit solchen Geberden, daß alles (everybody) lachte. Die Feinde haben derartige Maßregeln getroffen, daß jeder Rückzug unmöglich wird. Das Verhältnis war nicht derart or der (see **271. I**) Art, daß es Johanna große Verlegenheit verursacht hätte. Er hat einen (see **271. I**) Charakter, daß man sich von ihm nichts Gutes versehen kann. Wie viele Eltern gehen dem Vergnügen nach, anstatt daß sie für die Erziehung ihrer Kinder sorgen! Er erfocht einen glänzenden Sieg, ohne daß er viel Menschenleben geopfert hätte. Ich habe selten geschlafen, daß ich nicht geträumt hätte. Ich denke an den Verlust nicht mehr, geschweige daß ich denselben gegen deinen Bruder erwähnen sollte.

Instead of *so*, *solch*, *derartig*, *ein*, *der* in the principal proposition corresponding to the *daß* of the subordinate clause we may have a question; see **238. 3. C. c**. We sometimes find a simple *daß* clause without any corresponding word or

question in the principal proposition: Und nun erklingt mein Wunderglockenspiel | in süßen, brünstig süßen Töfelaute[n], | daß jede Brust erschluchzt vor weher Lust (Hauptmann's *Versunkene Glocke*, Act iii, ll. 1573-5).

a. The mood of the clause is indic. if it is desired to represent the statement as a result that has been actually attained, but the subjunctive to indicate that the statement is merely conceived of as possible, improbable, doubtful, or impossible.

b. *Abridgment.* Clauses introduced by anstatt daß and ohne daß may be abridged to the infin. construction if the subject of the clause is identical with that of the principal proposition: Sie schweigen, anstatt daß sie sich beklagen, or anstatt sich zu beklagen. Titus begegnete seinem Römer, ohne daß er ihn zuerst begrüßt hätte, or ohne ihn zuerst zu grüßen. Clauses introduced by simple daß (with a preceding so ein, fein, solch, dertartig in the principal proposition) are in recent literature very often abridged to an infinitive with um zu: Aristoteles sagt, daß eine Stadt so gebaut sein müsse, um die Menschen zugleich sicher und glücklich zu machen. Es wäre ein Anblick, um Engel weinen zu machen (Goethe's *Götz*, 4, 1). Es ist, um sich die Haare auszurufen (Raabe's *Frau Salome*, chap. vi) = Die Verhältnisse sind dertartig, daß man sich die Haare ausraufen möchte. Es ist kein Wetter, um noch länger hier in der Nacht darüber zu beratschlagen (id., *Der Dräumling*, xxviii). Es war recht ein Fleckchen Erde, um sich allein mit seinen Gedanken darin zu befinden, und wiederum doch auch, um sich nicht allein hier aufzuhalten, sondern sonst jemandem einen Mitgenuß daran zu vergönnen (Jensen's *Die Schatzsucher*, p. 80). Doch warum meinten Sie verhin, das sei kein Thema, um es mit mir zu erörtern? (id., *Die Katze*, p. 99). See also 281. b. Note.

Clause of Degree.

277. Clauses of degree define the degree or intensity of that which is predicated in the principal proposition. The degree can be expressed in the following ways:—

1. It is expressed in the form of a comparison:

A. Signifying a degree equal to that of the principal proposition:

a. Expressing a simple comparison (for conjunctions see 238. 3. D. I. A. a.): Er ist ebenso gelebt als [er] beklagen [ist]. When the verb of the clause is the same as that of the principal proposition it is usually, as in the preceding sentence, understood. See also 239. 3. Concerning the subjunctive mood here see 169. 2. H. a.

b. Expressing a proportion (for conjunctions see 238. 3. D. I. A. b.): Je mehr das Alter wächst, je (now more commonly desto or um so) schwerer wird das Sorgen (Günther). Je eher, je (still more common than desto or um so in short, pithy sayings) lieber the sooner, the better. Je mehr du dich ärgerst, desto (or um je, or less commonly um desto) mehr freuen sich deine Freunde. Wir können aber auch im Allgemeinen behaupten, um so (instead of the more common je) mehr Sorgfalt wird auf die Erlernung der künstlichen Sprache verwendet, um so näher kommt man darin der Norm, namentlich in allen denjenigen Punkten, die sich schriftlich fixieren lassen (H. Paul's *Prinzipien der Sprachgeschichte*, chap. xxiii). Danach einer tut, danach es ihm geht (proverb; for word-order see 288. B. d.). Je nachdem der Meister ist, wird aus dem Block ein Trog oder eine Bildsäule. Je nachdem die Arbeit ist, nach dem wird der Lohn sein.

c. Expressing a restriction (for conjunctions see 238. 3. D. I. A. c.): Manche böse Tat ist infieren zu entschuldigenden, als sie nicht in böser Absicht getan wird. Der Gelehrte ist nur infieren ein Gelehrter, infieren er in der Gesellschaft beachtet wird (Fichte). Jeder Mensch gilt in der Welt nur so viel, als er sich selbst gelten macht. So weit ich über seine Handlungsweise urteilen kann, halte ich sie für gerecht. The clause can also be introduced by was: Der Mann arbeitete, was er konnte. Was mich (den Verfasser, &c.) anbelangt or betrifft, so irrst du dich. Instead of a clause containing the verbs (an)betroffen or anbelangen we often find a prepositional phrase, and

sometimes the absolute present participle: Was sein Alter anbetrifft, or in Betreff or betreffs seines Alters, or sein Alter betreffend. Concerning the subjunctive mood here see 169. 2. H. b.

B. Following a comparative, *ander*, or a negative pronoun (for conjunctions see 238. 3. D. 1. B): Es ist schicklicher, daß ein zärtlicher Charakter Augenblicke des Stolzes hat, als daß ein stolzer von der Zärtlichkeit sich fortreißen läßt (Lessing). Was kann ich aber von Savignys Vorlesungen anders sagen, als daß sie mich aufs gewaltigste ergriffen und auf mein ganzes Leben und Studieren entschiedenen Einfluß erlangten (Jakob Grimm). Denke ich natürlich nicht anders, als Ihnen ist etwas passiert (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, 4, 1). Kein Naturereignis wird von der Jugend freudiger begrüßt als der Schnee [begrüßt wird]. When the clause has the same verb as the principal proposition the verb of the clause, as in the preceding example, can be understood. See also 239. 1.

a. In early N.H.G. *sein* (see 139. 3. e. Note 2) = irgend ein *any* was used: Denn das wort Gottes ist lebendig vnd freestig | vnd scherffer | denn kein zweischneidig Schwert (Hebrews iv. 12). This usage remained after a comparative up to the close of the eighteenth century and later, but it must have soon become identified with the negative *sein*, as it became the custom quite early in the period under French influence to use a pleonastic negative after a comparative. In the classic period this usage is still common, not only in case of *sein*, but of the other negatives also: Es ging besser, als wir nicht dachten (Goethe). The negative was here added to strengthen the statement. The present century has lost all feeling for this once common construction.

2. Expressing a result (for conjunctions see 238. 3. D. 2; for the origin of the *daß* clause see 271. I): Die Lust ist so still, daß das Rauschen des fernen Baches herüberdringt. Dein Vater ist noch nicht so ruhig, daß er die tägliche Anwesenheit eines Freundes ertragen könnte. Er war so weich gestimmt, daß er fast geweint hätte (169. 2. H. c). Dein Bremerhaven (city) — liegt das auf dem Mond, daß du das alles nicht weißt? (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, 1, 5). In den nächsten zwei Büchern, dem vii. und viii., verlieren wir Parzival fast völlig aus den Augen, kaum daß er gelegentlich im Hintergrund auftaucht (E. Martin's *Wolframs von Eschenbach Parzival*, II, p. xxiv). Er hat die (see 271. I) Gewandtheit im Neben, daß niemand es mit ihm aufnehmen kann. Er hat eine (see 271. I) Stimme, daß man ihn überall im Saal deutlich hören kann. Er ist zu stolz, als daß er diese Beleidigung verzeihen könnte. Die Nachrichten lauteten zu schön, als daß wir sie hätten glauben können. Meine Sünde ist größer, als daß sie mir könnte vergeben werden. Notice that the force of the subordinate clause introduced by *als daß* is negative. If the clause is to have affirmative force the negative must be used: Er denkt zu edel, als daß er nicht die Wahrheit sagte. A negative clause following a negative proposition has affirmative force. Sometimes the subordinate clause has affirmative instead of the usual negative form: So schau dir deine Springebächlein an: | da ist kein Wässerlein so dünn und klein, | es will und muß ins Menschenland hinein (Hauptmann's *Die versunkene Glocke*, 1).

We often find a simple *daß* or *so daß* in the subordinate clause without any corresponding *so*, *der*, or *ein* in the principal proposition, so that the result is represented as a result pure and simple without the modal idea of degree: Der Kanzleirat ließ die Feder fallen, daß auf dem vor ihm liegenden Bogen ein großer Kleck entstand (Baumbach's *Der Schwiegersohn*, vii). Das Haus brannte nieder, so daß kein Haus übrig blieb. Er schwankte, so daß ich ihn nicht mehr halten konnte. Er schwankte so', daß, &c., gives the modal idea. On the other hand, simple *daß* may contain the idea of degree: Nicht daß ich wüßte. Er schreit, daß man es auf der Straße hört.

a. *Mood*. The mood of the clause is indic. if it is desired to represent the statement as a result that has been actually attained, but the potential subjunctive to indicate that the statement is possible, or to make a statement modestly or cautiously; see 169. 2. H. c. See also 168. II. C. D; 169. 2. C. D.

b. Abridgment. The subordinate clause can be abridged to the infin. with *um zu* or *zu*: Der häufige und vertraute Verkehr mit einem Manne von der unwiderstehlichen Liebenswürdigkeit Cäsars tat das übrige, um den Bund der Interessen in einen Freundschaftsbund umzugestalten (MommSEN's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. vi). Die Bewachung des Gefangenen wurde derart verschärft, um ihm jeden weiteren Versuch zum Entkommen als zwecklos erscheinen zu lassen. Der allgemeine Wohlstand hat sich so gehoben, um auch eine Aufbesserung der Beamtenstellungen zu fordern. Der Rat war zu dringend und einleuchtend, um nicht befolgt zu werden. See also 281. *b. Note.*

Clause of Cause.

278. The subordinate clause contains the cause or reason, the principal proposition the result or conclusion (for conjunctions see 238. 3. E): Der Walsch kann nur kleine Tiere verschlingen, weil sein Schlund sehr eng ist. Philipp II. zitterte knechtisch vor Gott, weil Gott das einzige war, wovor er zu zittern hatte. Mancher unterläßt nur deshalb eine böse Handlung, weil er die Folgen fürchtet. Der Müßiggang verkürzt notwendig unser Leben, indem er uns schwächer macht. Da alle Zeugen in ihren Aussagen übereinstimmen, so wird die Sache wohl sich so verhalten. Du solltest so schwere Gedanken nicht in dir aufkommen lassen, da du doch mit mehr Genugthuung als viele andere auf dein vergangenes Leben und auf die Gegenwart blicken kannst (R. Huch's *Vita somnium breve*, I, p. 56). Ehrwürdiger, ich bitte dich, mir zu verzeihen und mich nicht zu senden, anernwogen ich, wie du weißt, der einfältigste und unwissendeste bin von allen (Ertl's *Die Stadt der Heiligen*). Wo waren meine Sinne, daß ich diesen Ton nicht sogleich verstand? Er hätte es nicht sagen sollen, zumal er wußte, daß es mir nachteilig sein kann. Nun er reich ist, hat er Freunde. Dieses Übel ist desto (or um so, sometimes um desto) lästiger, als (also da) es nur durch eine schmerzliche Operation geheilt werden kann. Da'von bist du krank geworden, daß du nach dem schnellen Laufe kaltes Wasser getrunken. Man erkennt einen leichtem Menschen leicht da'ran, daß er viel Unnützes schwärzt. As the genitive or a prepositional phrase may denote a cause, the genitive and prepositional phrase clauses treated in 272. A and D often belong also here: (genitive clause) Ich freue mich, daß es Ihnen wohl geht. For examples of such a prepositional phrase clause see sentence above beginning with Da'von, and also the last sentence in 272. D. The subordinate clause above introduced by da'ran daß may also be regarded as a clause of means (282).

a. Mood. We usually find here the indic. For the subjunctive here see 169. 2. J.

b. Abridgment. A causal clause introduced by *weil* or *da* can be abridged to a participle, adjective, noun, or prepositional phrase, when the subject of the principal proposition and that of the subordinate clause are identical: Er ist, weil durch Tapferkeit hervorragend, or weil tapfer (= weil er durch Tapferkeit hervorragt, or weil er tapfer ist), des Sieges gewiß. Die Feinde baten, durch die Niederlage gebeugt (= weil sie durch die Niederlage gebeugt waren), um Frieden. Ein geborener Herrscher regierte er (Cäsar) die Gemüter der Menschen, wie der Wind die Wellen zwingt (MommSEN's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. ii). Im Besitz von Italien und Dalmy kennen die Japaner ihre Verstärkungen und den Belagerungstrain landen, der für den Angriff auf Port Arthur nötig wird (*Neue Zürcher Zeitung*, 9. Juni 1904) Since the Japanese are in possession of, &c.

Conditional Clause.

279. The conditional clause states the condition upon which the action of the principal proposition hinges (for conjunctions see 238. 3. F.): Wenn das Fleisch eingesalzen und geräuchert ist, geht es nicht in Fäulnis über. Wenn alle Menschen gut wären, so bedürfte es keiner Strafgesetze. Und wiltu also mit mir thun | so erwürge mich lieber | **habe ich anders** (now usually wenn ich anders — habe) gnade für deinen Augen funden | das ich nicht mein Unglück so sehen müsse (Numbers xi. 15). Da dieser Widerwille, wenn ich anders mein Gefühl sorgfältig untersucht habe, ist gänzlich von der Natur des Fels (Lessing). Wenn anders es möglich ist, so schreibe mir. Wöfern er fleißig sein wollte, würde er Bedeutendes leisten. Er soll es hören, doch daß er nicht davon spricht. Ich billige alles, außer daß er nicht selbst kommen will. Ich kann nicht hinein kommen, außer wenn Sie das Tor öffnen. Das Reiten wäre hübsch, nur daß man leicht Hals und Bein bricht. Ich tue es nicht, ohne daß ich seine Erlaubnis habe. Er sprach nie, ohne daß er gefragt worden wäre. Es sei denn daß ich aus Gründen der heiligen Schrift oder mit klaren und hellen Gründen überwiesen werde, sonst kann und will ich nicht widerrufen (Luther).

a. The adverb *so* is in these sentences very often found in the principal proposition, as in the second example above.

b. The conditional clause may assume other forms: (1) Instead of the transposed word-order the question order is often used if the conjunction *wenn* is omitted; see 237. 1. A. *b*, and also *Note 2*, thereunder. (2) The clause may for especial emphasis be replaced by an imperative, in which case *so* is usually found in the principal proposition: Sei im Besitze und du wohnst im Recht Possession is nine points of the law. Sprich ja oder nein, so bin ich zufrieden. The hortatory subjunctive can also be used like the imperative; see 168. I. 2. C. *a*. These imperative and hortatory forms are independent co-ordinate propositions as far as the word-order is concerned, the logical relation of the thought to that of the main proposition alone indicating their dependence. Originally in these sentences logical subordination did not find grammatical expression. The dependent word-order is a later development, and not yet by any means always used even when the logical subordination is evident. (3) Earlier in the period there was in use a conditional clause with normal word-order which was affirmative in form and negative in meaning. Only a few remnants are left of this construction; see 168. I. 2. C. *b* and II. E. *b*. (4) The perfect participle in the absolute construction is often used here instead of a subordinate clause. For examples, see 265. B. *a*.

c. Mood. When the supposition is real the verb of the conditional clause is in the indic.: Wenn ich stumm blieb, geschah es nur, weil ich über ein Rätsel nachgrübelte If I remained silent (and I actually did so) it was because I was pondering over an enigma. If the case is only a supposed one, but one that can easily happen, the indic. is now used, or to indicate a little more uncertainty the past subjunctive of *sollen* with the infin. of the verb: Ich gehe fort, wenn er kommt *I shall go away if he comes*, or Ich gehe fort, wenn er kommen sollte *I shall go away if he should come*. The present subjunctive could be used instead of the indicative in earlier periods, but it is now only found after *es sei denn daß unless*, *falls in case that*: Direkt einzugreifen hat es kaum eine Veranlassung, es sei denn, daß es sich darum handle, die mit Bezug auf Korea vorhandenen Handels- und Schifffahrtsrechte zu wahren (*Deutsche Rundschau*, 2, 1894, p. 273) It (Germany) has scarcely any occasion to interfere (in the war between China and Japan in 1894), unless the question should arise of pre-

serving its present commercial and navigation privileges in Corea. The indic. might also be used here, but would suggest a greater probability of the question arising. In early N.H.G. such a conditional clause did not need an introductory conjunction, as the present subjunctive of itself indicated the subordination sufficiently. A remnant of this construction still survives in the expression *es sei denn*, which passes for a conjunction, but is in reality a conditional clause; see 168. I. 2. C. *b* and II. E. *b*. Subjunctive after *falls*: Ordnen Sie an — falls jemand komme — daß er nicht vorgelassen werde (Suttner's *Im Berghause*, p. 47). For another example of the subjunctive with *falls* see 168. II. E.

The historical tenses of the subjunctive may be used here to denote unreality or possibility. This unreal potential subjunctive is very common in *wenn* clauses if the condition is a mere conception of the mind, or is represented as a mere possibility or impossibility, or as in conflict with fact. The use of the moods and tenses in such unreal conditional sentences is explained at length in 169. 2. E. The historical tenses of the subjunctive are often used after *ohne daß*, as in the next to the last sentence of the examples given above, to make a statement modestly or cautiously.

In logical reasoning after the absolute participles *zugegeben*, *zugestanden*, *angenommen*, *eingeräumt*, which have the force of conjunctions, the present subjunctive is the usual construction, as the statement is only assumed as true for the sake of argument: *Zugegeben, aber nicht zugestanden, daß dem so sei, so rechtfertigt es dein Benehmen doch nicht.* After the absolute participle *gesetzt* the past or past perfect subjunctive is the usual construction, as the statement is merely a hypothetical one, and is represented as probably untrue, or as unlikely to be realized, or as merely belonging to the realm of fancy and conjecture: *Gesetzt aber, Miß, Sie wären die einzig Glückliche; gesetzt, Sie brächten ihn dahin, daß er seinen Abscheu überwinden müßte; glauben Sie wohl dadurch seines Herzens versichert zu sein?* The present subjunctive is used when it is desired to admit that the statement may be true, or may possibly be realized: *Gesetzt, er wolle auch jene alte Schmach vergessen, würde er ebenso ihre jüngste Unbill vergessen können?* The indic. is also used in lively language, vividly representing the statement as true: *Ich (Maria Stuart) hab' es nicht getan — Jedoch gesetzt, ich that's! Mylord, man hält mich hier gefangen wider alle Völkerrichte.*

d. Abridgment. When the subject of the principal proposition and that of the subordinate clause are identical the conditional clause introduced by *wenn* can be abridged to a participle: *Auch die Schwachen werden mächtig, wenn sie verbunden sind, or Verbunden, werden auch die Schwachen mächtig. Ob sie (i. e. die Rede) mir, gehört (= wenn sie von mir gehört werden wäre), ebenso imponiert hätte?* (Spielhagen's *Frei geboren*, p. 170). The subordinate clause is sometimes contracted to the infinitive with *zu* when the subject of the clause is identical with the subject or an object of the principal verb: *Du tatest besser, nach Frankreich zu gehen (Goethe). Es kann uns wenig Heil erbühen, um eine Fete zu streiten (Uhland).* This construction is common after *ohne*: *Ich tue es nicht, ohne seine Erlaubnis zu haben.* Also the absolute infinitive is used: *Der Knechtendichter schien, nach seinem schlichten Anzug zu urteilen, kein Günstling des Blutes zu sein.* Also other contractions occur: *Einige Schritte weiter* und Sie hätten den Mann bemerken müssen. *Ohne ihn* (= wenn er nicht gewesen wäre) war ich verloren.

Concessive Clause.

280. The concessive clause contains a conceded statement, which, though it is naturally in contrast or opposition to that of the principal proposition, is nevertheless unable to destroy the validity of the latter (for conjunctions see 238. 3. G): *Ob man gleich über den erschrockenen Sieg das Bedeunt anstimmte, so gestand doch Wallenstein selbst seine*

Niederlage. Obgleich die Alpen höher sind als die Pyrenäen, so lassen sie sich doch leichter überschreiten. So wichtige Gründe der Minister auch vorbringen mochte, der König achtete nicht auf seine Worte. Welch tapfer Haupt auch dieser Helm bedeckt (hat), er kann kein würdigeres zieren (Schiller). Trotzdem er schon seit längerer Zeit sehr unwohl war, erfüllte er doch noch immer die Pflichten seines Amtes mit der größten Pünktlichkeit. Hier könnt' ich meine Seele von mir hauchen, so mild und leise wie das Wiegenkind . . . , da (now da doch) fern von dir ich rasend toben würde (A. W. Schlegel). Können umbrische Schädel erhalten sein, da doch die Umbrer ihre Leichen verbrannten? (*Beilage zur Allgemeinen Zeitung*, Jahrgang 1904, No. 32, p. 250).

a. The adversative particle *doch* is frequently used for emphasis in the principal proposition, as in the first two sentences above.

b. As in 279. b, also here the subordinate clause has often the word-order and form of principal proposition: (1) The clause may be replaced by a proposition with normal or question order if the subjunctive of the verb be used; 237. 1. A. d. See also 168. I. 2. A. (2) The imperative may take the place of the clause: *Sei noch so dumm, es gibt doch jemand, der dich für weise hält.* (3) A proposition with question order and a verb in the indic. may be used instead of the subordinate clause: *Und bräut der Winter noch so sehr mit trogigen Gebärden, und streut er Eis und Schnee umher: es muß doch Frühling werden* (Geibel). The subjunctive may also be used here as indicated in (1), above, but the indic. *must* be used when the statement is represented as an actual fact: *Sind auch die alten Bücher nicht zur Hand, sie sind in unsre Herzen eingeschrieben.* See also 168. I. 2. A.

c. *Mood.* The indic. is usually used if the clause is introduced by a conjunction. Sometimes, however, the subjunctive is employed; see 168. I. 2. A. a, 2nd paragraph. If the clause is introduced by an interrogative pronoun or interrogative adverb the subjunctive is also still quite common, though the indic. is often found, and always when describing past events the results of which are now definitely known: *Wie dem auch sei* (or *sein mag*), *es wird sich alles zum Besten wenden.* *Wie strafbar auch des Fürsten Zwecke waren, die Schritte, die er öffentlich getan, versatteten noch eine milde Deutung.* If the conceded statement is not represented as an actual fact, but only as possible or impossible, or contrary to fact, the unreal potential subjunctive is used, see 169. 1. B. If the conjunction is dropped the moods are used as described in b, above. See also 168. I. 2. A.

d. *Abridgment.* If the subject of the subordinate clause and that of the principal proposition are identical the clause may be abridged to an appositional participle, adjective, or noun, but, contrary to the general rule, retains here the conjunctions (*obgleich* or *obwohl*): *Obwohl er vom Schicksal gebeugt ist, or Obwohl vom Schicksal gebeugt, strebt der Gute empor.*

Sometimes in colloquial language when the subjects are not identical abridgment occurs: *Den 2. März bestieg ich den Vesuv, obgleich bei trübem und unwirktem Gipfel (Goethe). Schlafen wird er nicht mehr; und wenn [er auch noch schläft], so weck' ich ihn (Hoffmann's *Wider den Kurfürsten*, chap. viii). [Na, du hast ja den Jungen gehörig bearbeitet. Er hat trogig erklärt, er wolle so schnell als möglich ins Institut. Er tut's wohl dir zu Liebe.] „Und wenn,“ warf Henrik ein, „Hauptsache muß doch wohl für dich sein, daß du deinen Zweck erreicht hast“ (Maria Janitschek's *Einer Mutter Sieg*, xiii).*

Clause of Purpose.

281. The *clause of purpose* or *final clause*, as it is often called, states the purpose or direct end of the action of the principal proposition (for conjunctions see 238. 3. H): *Der Knabe geht in die*

Schule, daß er sich Kenntnisse erwerbe. Darum bin ich euch entgegengeeilt, daß ich euch warnen könnte. Daß die Hand gesichert bleibe, faßt man Kohlen an mit Zangen. Da warf Konrabin seinen Handschuh vom Blutgerüste herab, damit er dem König Peter von Aragonien gebracht werde.

a. Mood. The subjunctive is here usually found, as the action is represented only as planned or desired. The indic., however, is often used, as the tendency has ever become stronger to look forward and regard the completion of the action as something that will surely take place, and thus in German *clauses of purpose* often become *clauses of result*: Besuche mich bald, damit ich dir von meiner Reise erzählen kann. After an imperative there is sometimes a shade of difference in the meaning between indic. and subjunctive. The subjunctive implies a greater deference to the wishes of the person addressed, while the indic. implies authority on the part of the speaker: Gehen Sie, damit es nicht zu spät werde, but to a boy: Gehe, damit es nicht zu spät wird. The indic. of a past tense on the other hand can be used when the aim is to represent the intention or desire as actually realized, and then the conjunction daß must be used: Ich rief ihn, daß er erschien. On the other hand, it is now often used instead of the subjunctive. For example see 168. I. 2. B. b.

b. Abridgment. The final clause is in common prose usually contracted to an infin. with *zu* or *um zu* wherever no ambiguity can arise: Er trank ein Glas Wein, um sich zu erwärmen (much more common than daß er sich erwärme).

Note. In Luther's time *um zu* was not yet used, but it is now much more common than the simple *zu*. This *um* is a prep. which denotes *around*, and usually stands before the name of the thing around which the interests cluster, and which is the aim and the object of the action: Er schickte den Knecht um das Pferd He sent the groom for the horse. Hence before the infin. *um* denotes that the infin. and its modifiers contain the aim and the object of the action of the principal verb: Er schickte den Knecht, um das Pferd zu holen. The increasing use of *um zu* instead of *zu* is quite natural. Although *zu* often expresses the idea of purpose when used with nouns, as described in 229. 2 under *zu*, II. 1. B. f, it is so often used with the infinitive as the subject or object of a verb that the original idea of purpose is no longer vividly felt. The prep. *um* brings out this idea clearly. Though *um zu* originally was limited to clauses of purpose, it has also spread to clauses of result, as mentioned in 276. C. b and 277. 2. b, and even to substantive and adjective clauses, as mentioned in 255. II, G. b and IV. 2. a. This favorite construction has to the alarm of the grammarians spread much beyond the bounds prescribed for it by strict grammatical laws, and is now used with especial frequency to add to a statement about a person or thing some item concerning their later fate, lot, or conduct: Sie schieden, um sich nie wiederzusehen They parted never to see one another again. Dann lagte wohl der findliche Hirschfenn auf, um bald wieder desto schwerer niedergebückt zu werden. Hier hatte sie seither gelebt, geliebt, geheiratet, Kinder geboren und begraben und als einzige schwärze Erbin den stattlichen Besitz angetreten, um eines Tages wieder alles dem einzigen Sohne zu hinterlassen (Berlepsch's *Fortunats Roman*, p. 3). Unter ihnen daselbe Gese, mit Neßhaar überzogen, in dem vor zehn Jahren Hans Thorbecken geessen hatte, um am andern Morgen in die Fremde zu fliehen (Frenssen's *Die Sandgräfin*, chap. xx). This censured construction corresponds closely to the use of the infinitive with *to* in similar expressions in English. The infinitive with *to* in English and *um zu* in German are here employed to denote a result which is the natural outcome of events or plans independent of the action described in the principal proposition, while they elsewhere denote a result as the effect of the activity or state indicated in the governing proposition. While the use of *to* and *um zu* here is contrary to the general principle observed in clauses of result, it should be regarded as a valuable modification and extension of this principle which should be encouraged rather than discouraged, as it is one of the tersest and most expressive constructions known to either language.

Clause of Means.

282. The clause of means indicates the means by which the effect mentioned in the principal proposition is produced. For the conjunctions used and illustrative examples see **238. 3. I.**

Clause of Material.

283. Adverbial clauses of material are quite rare. For the conjunctions used and illustrative examples see **238. 3. J.**

WORD-ORDER.

284. I. The German word-order presents peculiar difficulties to the English-speaking student. One of the first things to learn is that word-order in a German sentence is intimately connected with accent. In German words are removed from their usual position and placed at the beginning of the sentence when they become emphatic, while in English we may accent words heavily without changing their position. The next important position in a German sentence is at the end. The least emphatic words are usually found near the middle of the sentence, and further on the words receive more stress as they approach the end. Also considerations of euphony influence word-order. Short, light objective or adverbial elements precede longer, heavier ones. Opposed to this freedom of placing words according to their logical or emotional importance, or the requirements of euphony, &c., are certain mere formal principles which have developed certain fixed types. Hence the whole subject must be studied in detail.

In German there are three word-orders: the verb in the second place, the verb in the first place, the verb in the last place.

1. The verb in the second place may assume two different forms. The subject may stand in the first place with the verb in the second place: *Der Vater liebt den Sohn.* This form is called *normal order*. If any other word for emphasis, or to establish a nearer relation with what goes on before, or because it lies nearer in thought, stand in the first place, the verb still maintains the second place, followed usually by the subject in the third place: *Auf Sonnenschein folgt Regen.* This order is called *inverted*.

a. This division into normal and inverted order is now quite general, but not altogether scientific. In earlier periods there is no difference whatever between these two orders. The subject or any word in the predicate could for emphasis, or to establish a nearer relation with what went on before, or because it lay nearer in thought, stand in the first place, followed by the verb in the second place. This older order of things is in large measure still in force. The subject still takes its place at the head of the sentence when it becomes emphatic, especially the interrogatives, *wer, welcher, &c.*, or a noun which has important modifiers: *Alle wirkliche Kunst beruht auf der individuellen Freiheit und dem fröhlichen Lebensgenuß* (Mommmsen's *Römische Geschichte*, III, chap. xiv). The subject is brought forward to establish a nearer relation with

what goes on before, especially in case of demonstrative pronouns. Even the weakly accented personal pronoun establishes the connection with what precedes: *Willst du nicht deinen Kaffee trinken, Lantchen?* Er wird ganz kalt (Sudermann's *Fritschen*, 5). This personal pronoun is sometimes accented, and then it stands at the head of the sentence in a double capacity — as an emphatic word and to establish a connection with what precedes: *Herr, er hatte es leicht!* Er ging von hinnen, aber dir ließ er als Erbe das halb zerstörte Reich (Sudermann's *Teja*, 11).

These original ideas which lie in the normal word-order are now often little felt or not felt at all, as this word-order has developed a different force. It has become the form of expression suited to the mind in its normal condition of steady activity and easy movement, from which it departs under the stress of emotion or for logical reasons, or in conformity to fixed rules. Thus where there are several subordinate clauses connected by *und*, *oder*, &c., there is a strong tendency after the conjunction to return to the normal order: *Stünd' Agamemnon's Sohn dir gegenüber, | und du verlangtest, was sich nicht gebührt: | so hat usw.* (Goethe's *Iphigenie*, 5, 3). *Wenn dann die rollenden Wagen vorbeigefahren sind und man hört sie nur noch in der Ferne usw.* (Auerbach). *Wer einen solchen Schritt unternimmt und den, Gott sei Dank! immer noch fest gefügten Bau der Kirche zertrümmern will und hat sich nicht besser alles vorher überlegt, der kann sich nur lächerlich machen.* In much the same manner the inverted order is often replaced by the normal: *Als er zurückkam, war sein Gesicht stark verweint und er schloß sich mehrere Stunden in sein Zimmer ein* (Schubert's *Boris Lensky*, x). The normal order is also now usually employed where in earlier periods the question order was used, i.e. the verb was placed at the head of the sentence for especial emphasis. Thus usually *ich muß*, but in colloquial language the old question order asserts itself: (Trude) *Und du — zeigst sie jetzt an?* (Förster) *Muß ich* (M. Dreyer's *Winterschlaf*, 1). In a somewhat veiled form this older usage is still quite common in the literary language. The expletive *es* is placed at the head of the sentence as a provisional subject followed immediately by the verb, and further on by the logical subject: *Es irrt der Mensch so lang er strebt* (Goethe's *Faust*, Prolog). Thus, though the order is in form the normal, it is in fact the question order, for the verb is the first word of real meaning. This important construction is discussed at length in 251. II. B. a. bb, cc.

As the original use of the normal word-order to make emphatic the subject is not now so vividly felt as formerly, it is now common to place the subject near the end of the sentence if it is to be especially emphasized. For fuller treatment of this point see 251. II. B. a. cc.

2. The verb in the first place is the usual order of a question, and may be called *question order*: *Ist der Knabe fleißig?*

a. In earlier periods the verb stood in the first place whenever it was emphatic, or in order to establish a nearer relation with what went on before, or because it lay nearest in thought, and hence could introduce a declarative sentence. In literary German this order is now restricted to definite groups of cases, which are given in 287. B. In popular language, however, the earlier freedom of placing a verb at the beginning of even a declarative sentence is still quite common. See 251. II. B. b, also 286. A. c.

3. The verb in the last place is the order of a subordinate clause, and is usually called *transposed order*: *Die Sterne erscheinen uns deswegen so klein, weil sie so weit von uns entfernt sind.*

a. In earlier periods the verb quite commonly introduced the principal proposition in emphatic statement and narrative, and survivals of this usage still often occur in emphatic statements and ballads, as indicated in 287. B

(7) and (8), but in the *normal* declarative sentence the verb stood at the end. This was in conformity with a general principle of the German sentence that modifiers of a word should precede it, a principle which in large part is still observed. This normal order was disturbed in case of emphatic modifiers of the verb or in long sentences, where the attention was directed to the modifiers by crowding the verb out of the end position and placing there the important adverbial and objective elements. This occasional *emphatic* order became finally the new *normal* order as it exists to-day. The older normal order, however, still survives in poetry; see 288. B. c. It has also been preserved in the subordinate clause. The main reasons for the preservation of the older order here seem to be: firstly, the subordinate clause is shorter, and hence not so liable to disturbance; secondly, the subordinate clause is usually presented more dispassionately as a *compact* unit, and hence the old normal order is preserved, as it has not been disturbed by logical considerations or the stress of emotion in directing the attention to some particular element or elements as in the principal proposition.

II. These different word-orders are discussed somewhat in detail in the following articles, but a number of still smaller details can only be learned from practical acquaintance with the language. The word-order, as it is, has only after a long period of development assumed its present form. Earlier usage is still reflected occasionally in poetry and elevated language in general, as is mentioned below and in 237, in the treatment of transposed word-order.

Normal Order.

I. General Statement.

285. 1. Order of Words. This order is, first the subject with all its modifiers, then the simple verb or in compound tenses the auxiliary, followed by the modifiers of the verb: Goethe, der am 28. August 1749 auf die Welt kam, hat im geistigen Leben Deutschlands gewirkt, wie eine gewaltige Naturerscheinung im physischen gewirkt hätte.

2. Normal order is found:

a. In independent declarative sentences: Ich trage immer die Schuhe vorn eßig I always wear square-toed shoes.

b. In questions in which the interrogative word or phrase is itself the subject of the sentence: Wer kommt denn alles? Who all are coming? Wessen Hut liegt auf dem Tische?

c. Often in other interrogative sentences, which are distinguished from declarative sentences only by the rising inflection or in print by the punctuation: Und Sie haben das im Ernste geglaubt? And you really believed that? Such sentences usually express doubt or surprise. In connection with *nicht wahr* is *he not, has he not, is she not, has she not, must you not*, &c., which may introduce the sentence or close it, this order is much used in questions which confidently expect an affirmative answer: Es ist heute schönes Wetter, nicht wahr? It is fine weather to-day, isn't it? Nicht wahr, sie kann schön singen? She can sing beautifully, can't she?

d. In wishes the normal order may be used; see 168. I. 1. B. a.

e. In commands which are expressed by the indicative; see 177. B. b. c.

f. The normal order is also sometimes used in subordinate clauses; see 237. 1. A. *a, d, f*, and *Note 1*, under *b*.

II. Detailed Statement.

A. Word-order of the Subject. The general rule for the position of the modifiers of the subject is that adjectives and participles precede, an adjective clause, an adverb (see B. *a. Note* (1), (2), (3), (4), below), or prep. phrase follow, an appositive or genitive either precedes or follows the subject: Ein edler Mann wird durch ein gutes Wort der Frauen weit geführt. Ein Glaube, welchem die Werke fehlen, ist ein toter Glaube. Der Durst nach Ruhm verleitet manche auf falsche Wege. Das Schloß des Kaisers bei Potsdam ist sehr schön.

a. The position of an appositive is described in 255. III. 1. A, B, *b*, and that of a genitive is treated in 255. II. 1. The appositive noun, which represents an older partitive genitive, may precede the governing noun or pronoun, and often stands at the head of the sentence, whether it modifies the subject or an object; see 255. II. 1. H. *a*.

b. The adjective sometimes stands after the subject; see 104. 2. B. *a* and *b*; 111. 9.

c. All modifiers of an attributive adjective or participle must stand before it: Der gegen seinen Beschützer für die empfangenen Wohlthaten in hohem Grade dankbare Knabe übernahm freudig den gefährlichen Auftrag. Das auf dem Tische liegende Buch.

d. An appositional noun, adjective, or participle, which precedes the subject, not as an attributive modifier, but as the equivalent of an adverbial clause, must like adverbs cause inversion: Ein geborener Herrscher (= weil er ein geborener Herrscher war), regierte er die Gemüther der Menschen, wie der Wind die Wellen zwingt.

B. Word-order of the Predicate. The personal part of the verb follows the logical subject. The general rule for the word-order of the modifiers of the verb is that the important words gravitate towards the end of the sentence and the less important, as personal or reflexive (see 218. 1. *a*) pronouns, stand near the verb. The following points should be carefully mastered:

a. The verb, or in compound tenses the auxiliary, must follow the logical subject *immediately*, and hence no adverbial expressions or clauses must be allowed to stand between subject and verb as in English: Ich besuche ihn oft I often visit him. Die Griechen wälzten, damit ihre eigene Schwäche verdeckt bliebe, alle Schuld des Verlustes auf ihn The Greeks, in order that their own weakness might remain concealed, threw all blame for the loss upon him.

Note. To this important rule there must be added, however, a few exceptions: (1) Often a few adverbial expressions, as *nur only*, *wenigstens at the least*, *jedenfalls at any rate*, *für meine Person*, or *für meinen Teil*, or *meine theils for my part*, and the concessive terms *freilich to be sure*, in der That *indeed*, *wie ich zugeben muß as I must confess*, &c., modify not the verb, but only the subject, and hence may follow it, and thus stand between subject and verb: Ich wenigstens habe nichts gesehen I for my part have seen nothing. (2) A few adverbs as *besonders especially*, *vorzüglich particularly*, *vor allem above all*, &c., especially emphasize the subject, and may follow it: Dein

Bruder besonders hat sich in der letzten Zeit gegen mich sehr freundlich bewiesen. (3) Partitive and adversative conjunctions or adverbs, as *einerseits* on the one hand, *andererseits* on the other hand, *aber*, *indessen*, *jedoch* however, *dagegen*, *hingegen* on the other hand, &c., which represent the subject as sharing in an action or as being in contrast to another subject, may follow the subject: *Seine Kränklichkeit einerseits, seine Trägheit andererseits waren ihm ein großes Hindernis. Alle waren über den frechen Mordanschlag auf den Fürsten außer sich, dieser im Gegenteil (or hingegen) verlor seinen Augenblick die Fassung.* (4) Sometimes adverbs, or adverbial phrases or clauses, though true adverbial elements in form, are felt as the equivalent of adj. modifiers, and follow the subject: *Das Haus da (= das da steht) gehört mir* The house there belongs to me. *Die Treibjagd am 3. Januar (= die am 3. Januar stattfand) brachte über hundert Menschen auf die Beine.* *Hannibal, da er (= welcher) sich auf die noch nicht völlig unterworfenen Kelten Oberitaliens stützen wollte, wählte den Weg über die Alpen.* (5) A clause sometimes stands before the verb when it refers to the thought contained in the predicate as a whole rather than to the verb itself: *Der Tunnel (literary society in Berlin in the years 1827-77), was nicht gleichgültig war und deshalb hier mit erwähnt werden mag, besaß auch ein nicht unbeträchtliches Vermögen (Fontane).* (6) A phrase, clause, or sentence is often inserted parenthetically between subject and verb: *Die Stiftungsfeste, wie gesagt (as already mentioned), waren gut. Dein Bruder, wenn du es durchaus wissen willst, hat das Geld genommen; er, um frei von der Leber zu sprechen, ist der Dieb. Der Knabe — Wilhelm hieß er — antwortete: Ich weiß es nicht.*

b. In sentences containing a compound tense and also those containing a separable prefix or a predicate adjective, the grammatically important word of the predicate, i. e. *participle, infinitive, separable prefix, predicate adjective or noun*, usually stands at the end of the sentence. For fuller treatment of this important word-order see 215. II. 1. A. This word-order is observed even where the participle is used instead of a past tense; see 183. 1. G. Besides the points discussed in 215. II. 1. A, the following additional details should be noted:

aa. Auxiliary infinitives stand after perf. participles: *Sie dürften sich geirrt haben* You have probably made a mistake. *Wir müssen wohl beide zugleich darauf gekommen sein* We must have both hit upon that idea at the same time. A dependent infinitive, however, precedes a participle: *Ich habe ihn kommen gesehen.*

bb. The predicate noun, adjective, or participle is followed by a perf. participle or infinitive: *Er ist ein tüchtiger Mann geworden. Sie ist schön gewesen. Sie wird ihnen nahe bleiben. Er wird ein tüchtiger Mann geworden sein* He has probably become a good, solid man. Here belongs the predicate participle in the passive voice, which must always be followed by the participle and infinitive of *werden*: *Der Schüler ist gelobt worden. Er wird gelobt werden.*

cc. The infinitive or participle which stands regularly at the end of the sentence must be preceded by its modifiers: *Ich kann Ihnen keine bestimmte Antwort geben. Er hat den Streit angefangen.* If, however, the infinitive or participle is modified by an infinitive with *zu* or by a clause it must usually precede these modifiers: *Ich muß Sie bitten, mir einen Regenschirm zu leihen. Ich möchte gern wissen, was dies ist. Das Kind hat angefangen, Französisch zu lernen. Ich hab's erfahren, was Hungern ist.*

dd. A single adverb, a genitive, or dative modifying a predicate adjective, or participle must precede it, but a phrase or longer expression may also follow it, a clause usually so: *Er ist dort gebürtig* He is a native of that place. *Er ist der deutschen Sprache mächtig* He can speak and understand German. *Verstellung ist der offenen Seele fremd.* But: *Er ist aus dem südlichen Frankreich gebürtig, or Er ist gebürtig aus dem südlichen Frankreich.* *Er ist darüber sehr erfreut, but Ich bin sehr erfreut, daß er sich meiner erinnert.* A modifying phrase usually follows when some word in the phrase is modified by other words: *Der*

Augenblick war daher möglichst ungünstig gewählt für den nochmals gemachten Versuch, gütlich zwischen den Parteien zu vermitteln.

ee. A participle which has the form of an infinitive may stand at the end of a sentence or before the dependent infinitive and its modifiers; see 178. 2. B. *c.* For the emphatic position of the dependent infinitive in this construction see the same article.

ff. Sometimes in both normal and question order other words can follow an infinitive or participle contrary to the general rule that infinitive and participle must stand at the end. This exceptional order was common in Luther's language, and it is not infrequent in the vigorous prose of our own time whenever it seems best for sake of emphasis to place some important modifier of the verb at the end of the sentence, although in general the word-order has become stereotyped: *Ich werdet hören Kriege und geschrey von kriegem* (Matthew xxiv. 6). *Hast du die Schmerzen gelindert je des Beladenen?* (Goethe). *Sie haben Ihr Lebensglück geopfert um meinentwillen* (Sudermann's *Heimat*, 4, 5). Sometimes in colloquial language unimportant words follow the infinitive or participle: *Ich behaupte, auf wen dein Vater einwirft, der kann gar nie gänzlich verflachen im Leben* (Hauptmann's *Michael Kramer*, 1, p. 26).

On the other hand, this irregular feature is a regular characteristic feature of the German spoken by Jews who have not eradicated all traces of Hebrew or other foreign influence from their language: *Die Papiere sind gewesen in unser Stadt, einer hat sie gestriegt von einem alten sterbenden Bettler, und ist geworden ein mächtiger Mann* (Veitel Itzig in Freytag's *Soll und Haben*, chap. i). This order is also found in the German of Poles, Frenchmen, Englishmen, and other foreigners: *Ich aber sage, Herr Pfarrer, diese Sünde kann nicht verziehen werden in Ewigkeit, denn er hat sich nicht nur selbst erniedrigt zum Tier, er hat auch andre hineingezogen in seinen Fall und hat sie betrogen um ihr zeitliches und ewiges Heil* (the Polish chaplain in Halbe's *Jugend*, p. 96). Compare also the German of Riccaut in Lessing's *Minna von Barnhelm*, 4, 2. See likewise 215. II. 1. A. *a. Note.*

In general, however, the position of the infinitive and participle at the end of the proposition has become stereotyped, so that they occupy this place even when they are preceded by more emphatic words. English word-order, which, in general, is much more fixed, often preserves at this point the old freedom of position better than the German: Clo.: the lady bade take away the fool; therefore I say again, take her away. Oli.: Sir, I bade them take away *you* (Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night*, 1, 5). Narr.: Das Fräulein wollte das Narrengezicht weggeschafft haben, darum sage ich noch einmal: schafft das Fräulein weg! Olivia.: Guter Freund, ich wollte **Guch** weggeschafft haben (A. W. Schlegel's translation). Schlegel could not easily have imitated here the English order, and hence the force of the English can only be indicated by a strong accent upon *Guch*. Perhaps, if the German translator had thoroughly understood the meaning of the position of *you* at the end of the sentence he would have arranged his words differently. This position indicates strong emphasis, and can be imitated in German by putting the object in the first place: Guter Freund, **Guch** wollte ich weggeschafft haben.

gg. The preceding remarks refer to the usual position of participle, infinitive, separable prefix, predicate adjective, or noun. A certain logical emphasis always lies in all these grammatical functions, even though there may be no especial stress upon the individual words, and hence the regularity with which we find these words in their position at the close of the sentence. However, if any *especial* emphasis be placed upon the individual words in these functions, they are placed at the head of the sentence: *Eh'en ist das Wetter heute nicht. Gegeben habe ich ihm das Buch nicht, sondern nur geliehen. Schreiben hätte er doch wenigstens gekonnt.* The separable prefix only rarely thus introduces the sentence, and that usually in poetry, preferring as a rule

to stand at the end of the sentence : Zurück bleibt der Knappen Troß (Schiller). See 215. II. 1. A. *e* for the manner of writing the prefix here.

hh. If an infinitive or participle belongs to several propositions it is usually in normal, inverted, and question order found in its proper position in the last of the propositions, and understood with the others : Er (Cäsar) hat diese beiden großen Aufgaben nicht bloß neben einander, sondern eine durch die andere gelöst (Mommson's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. ii). In colloquial language it may be found in the first proposition and understood with the others : Sätt' ich hingehen sollen und ihn anzeigen ? (Halbe's *Der Strom*, p. 69).

c. Order of Objects. The general rule is, here as elsewhere in the predicate, that the known and hence less important and unaccented word comes first, and the newly introduced word, to which the attention is to be especially called, and which consequently bears the accent, follows. A longer, heavier word often for the sake of euphony follows a shorter word. The following applications of these points are to be especially noted, but it must be borne in mind that these positions, though the common ones, are not absolute, and hence will change at once when the relative importance and accent of the objects change.

aa. If there are two acc. objects, one of the person and one of the thing, the object of the thing will follow if it is a noun, but will precede if it is a pronoun, as it already will have been referred to, and hence is the less important word : Der Lehrer lehrte den Schüler (or ihn, if the person has been mentioned) den richtigen Ausdruck. But : Ich weiß den richtigen Ausdruck nicht. Lehre ihn mich. Of course the pronominal object of the thing may follow when it becomes the more important or a longer, heavier word : Der Schüler lernt den richtigen Ausdruck. Der Lehrer lehrt ihn denselben (instead of ihn ihn).

Note. The contracted form of *es* often by way of exception follows a pronominal acc. of the person when no especial emphasis of the person is involved : Ich weiß das Richtige nicht. Lehre es mich or Lehre mich's. The contractions *ihn's* and *uns's*, however, are not used, and hence here the regular forms *es ihn* and *es uns* must be employed.

bb. When there are two objects, a dat. and an acc., the dat. precedes if the acc. is a noun or any pronoun other than a personal or reflexive pronoun : Ich schrieb meinem Freund (or ihm) einen Brief (or dies). Seine Mittel erlauben ihm dies.

Note. Of course the dat. follows when it becomes more prominent than the acc., especially when it is modified by a clause : Ich empfehle diesen Knaben meinem Freunde, der sich gewiß seiner annehmen wird.

cc. Of two objects, a dat. and an acc., the acc. precedes if it is a *personal* or *reflexive* pronoun : Ich sagte es ihm. Er nahm ihn sich zum Muster. Ein Scherz, wie er ihn sich oft erlaubt. Er entzog sich mir.

Note. The following exceptions are common : (1) The contracted form of *es* often follows the dat., especially the datives *mir*, *dir*, *sich* : Gib es mir, or Gib mir's. (2) The ethical dative (258. 3. C), which is usually weakly accented, can stand before the acc. of a pronoun : Schilt ihn mir, or mir ihn nicht, den lieben Jungen ! (3) Of course the dat. follows the acc. if it is the more important and emphatic of the two : Ich bedarf eines Rates von Ihnen. Wollen Sie mir ihn geben ? Here both the dat. and the acc. object have already been brought to the attention of the person addressed, but the thing represented by the acc. is the point towards which the attention is more particularly directed. Notice in the following sentences the shifting

of position according to fine shades of meaning: *Ach bleib' nur, Lotte! Ich bringe dir ihn* (i. e. den Kaffee) *schon* (Beyerlein's *Dämon Othello*, 1, 5). *Die* (i. e. die Blumen) *will ich mir aber alle aufheben, und wenn sie verwelkt sind, presse ich sie mir* (ib., 1, 5). *Ach was, dumm! — Kind! Das wäre schlimm! Bin ich doch selbst dein Lehrer gewesen und hab' dich mir herangezogen, so wie ich dich haben wollte* (ib., 1, 7).

dd. If there are an accusative and a prepositional or genitive object, the acc. precedes: *Er schrieb einen Brief an seinen Freund. Der König zieh den Herzog des Verrates.*

ee. The preceding rules for the position of objects must of course be set aside if one of the objects is an interrogative or relative pronoun, for these must always stand at the beginning of the sentence: *Was schreiben Sie Ihrem Freund?*

d. *Order of Adverbs.* Here as elsewhere in the predicate the rule holds that the unimportant words stand nearest the personal part of the verb, and the important ones gravitate towards the end of the sentence. Adverbs usually observe the following order: *Time, Place, Manner, Cause, Purpose*: *Er kehrt heute von Paris mit seinem Freunde wegen Familienverhältnisse und zur Regelung seiner Geschäfte zurück.* The following details should be carefully noted:

aa. For the sake of euphony a short word often precedes a heavier one or a phrase, although according to the usual rule it would follow it: *Ich reiste gern nach Paris.*

bb. Of several adverbs the more general precede the more specific: *Wir reisen morgen früh um sechs Uhr 50 Minuten ab. Der Pelzjäger fand den Verunreinigten auf der Fahrstraße im Dreck liegen.* Of course the word of more general meaning follows if it is to be made emphatic: *Ich beauftragte ihn, meinem Kutscher zu sagen, er möge sich um acht Uhr morgens zur Weiterfahrt bereit halten.*

cc. The negatives *nicht* *not*, *nie*, *niemals* *never*, &c., usually stand at the end of the clause, or, in case there is a predicate noun or adjective, an infinitive, a perf. part., or an inseparable prefix in the clause, just before these: *Er schrieb mir heute nicht. Er will nicht Selbstat bleiben. Der Zufriedene ist nicht arm. Er wird nicht kommen. Ich habe ihn nie gesehen. Er ist noch nicht zurückgekehrt.* In elliptical propositions *nicht* stands last: *Wer hat das getan? Ich [habe es] nicht [getan].* This is the position of the negative only when it modifies the predicate, and hence the statement as a whole. In case the negative modifies some other word in the sentence it must stand just before that word: *Nicht er kam, sondern sie. Er hat nicht mich, sondern Sie betrogen. Er kommt nicht heute, sondern morgen.*

dd. A single adverb modifying another must stand before it: *Er ist sehr alt.*

e. *Order when there are both Adverbs and Objects.* Of the modifiers of the verb, adverbial elements are of less importance as a rule than noun objects and hence precede them, but pronominal objects precede adverbial elements: *Der Durst verließ aus Dankbarkeit dem Feldherrn diese Würde. Sie sprechen vollkommen gut Deutsch. Er überträgt mit schneller Besonnenheit seinem Adjutanten die Verfolgung der Feinde. Er sagte es mir gestern mit großer Freude.*

aa. Adverbs of place usually follow an accusative or dative object, but precede a prepositional object: *Wir konnten das Buch nirgends im Hause finden, but Sie warten hier in der Nähe auf euren Wink.*

bb. Of course emphasis can reverse the usual order of objects and adverbs. Especially in short sentences adverbs of time and manner often stand after objects: *Ich sah diesen Herrn gestern. Ich trinke den Kaffee sehr gern.*

C. Order of Adjective Modifiers. The adjective modifiers of any noun whether in the subject or predicate have exactly the same word-order as the modifiers of the subject (see A): *Kein Dichter oder Denker hat nach Luthers Zeiten einen in soviel Richtungen gleichzeitig wirkenden, vier aufeinanderfolgende Generationen volldurchdringenden Einfluß gehabt als Goethe* (Hermann Grimm's *Goethe*, Einleitung).

a. Sometimes the adjective is placed after the governing noun for emphasis: *Das ist nicht mein Fräulein, Schaf, dummes!* (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, p. 118). For other cases where the adjective follows see 104. 2. B. *a* and *b*; 137. I. *a*; 111. 9.

Inverted Order.

286. In this word-order the predicate, an object, some adverbial element, or the expletive *es*, occupies the first place, the verb stands in the second place, and the subject then follows immediately or at an interval of several words: *Damals wohnten die Kelten in offenen Flecken, jetzt umgaben ihre Ortschaften wohlgefügte Mauern.* This order differs from the normal order in that some word from the predicate, or the expletive *es*, takes the first place and the subject takes the position after the verb, or in compound tenses after the auxiliary. In other respects the position of the words is in general retained as in normal order. Compare older English: *Now has he land and beefs* (Shakespeare's *Henry IV*, Second Part, 3, 2).

The leading points as to the use of this order and the particulars concerning the word-order are as follows:

A. Use of Inverted Order. This order is used:

a. Just as in English, as the usual form for a question introduced by an interrogative word which is not the subject of the verb: *Was gibt es Neues? Warum kommt er?* The same form is also sometimes used in exclamations: *Wie schön ist das Wetter!*

b. The inverted order is used whenever for some rhetorical reason a word or an expression is brought forward from the predicate and placed at the head of the sentence, and hence its use is a matter of style. Words are thus in general brought forward for the following reasons. (1) A word or words containing a reference to a preceding sentence or connected with it in thought are naturally brought forward, so that that which is stated in the one sentence and is now known may become the sure foundation for the next, upon which the thought can be further built up and enlarged: *Er war zwar ein großer Redner, Schriftsteller und Feldherr, aber jenes davon ist er nur geworden, weil er ein vollendeter Staatsmann war.* Here *jedes* *davon*, referring as it does to the foregoing words *Redner*, *Schriftsteller*, *Feldherr*, serves nicely as a foundation upon which to build a new thought. (2) Words take the first place which lie nearest in thought, especially such as give us a general idea of the situation, so that the mind may be prepared for that which follows: *Tief unten zu unseren Füßen lag wie im banger Traume die Stadt Freiburg mit ihren zerstreuten, matt schimmernden Lichtern.* (3) Any word or words may for especial emphasis be brought forward from the predicate and be placed at the beginning of

the proposition: Er hat sehr vieles unternommen, **gelingen** ist ihm nichts. Bis der Löwe kommen wird, und — **Kommen** wird er (Ludwig's *Makkabäer*, 1). Man mag Cornelius heute verehren oder gleichgültig an ihm vorübergehen: **leben** tut (251. II. B. a. bb, 2nd paragraph) er und **überleben** wird er viele noch (Hermann Grimm in *Deutsche Rundschau*, Mai 1896, p. 255). For other examples of this emphatic position for the perfect participle and the infinite see 251. II. B. a. bb, 3rd paragraph. A verb in a simple tense cannot thus be put in the first place; see B. b, below. Also other elements can be brought forward from the predicate: **Jetzt** hat er ein großes Haus. **Den Vater** liebt der Sohn. **Die Franzosen** schlug Wellington. **Nicht mir** gab er das Buch, er gab es meinem Bruder. **Dort unter dem Baum** sitzt er. **Schön** ist sie nicht, **gut** ist sie. Gar kein Kerl! **Ein Lump** ist er. Also in questions some word can for emphasis be placed at the head of the sentence, followed by inverted order: Und das dulden Sie? The question is not here detected by the order, but by the rising inflection of the voice. Of these different uses (1) and (3) distinguish themselves by a stronger accent. (4) Instead of a word or phrase, as in the preceding cases, a full or contracted clause may for the same reasons precede the verb, or the main sentence may be found within the body of the subordinate clause. In both of these cases inversion in the principal proposition is the rule: Was möglich war, hat er geleistet. Um den Arzt zu holen, fuhr er schnell nach der Stadt. „Lauf' nur," sagte ich, „lauf.“

c. This order is also used to emphasize the subject, predicate, or a verb in a simple tense, in which cases the sentence is usually introduced by *es*, followed immediately by the verb and still later by the subject. See 251. II. B. a. In this construction, however, the word-order is only formally inverted. It is in reality that of a question, as the verb in fact stands in the first place. The *es* which precedes the verb has no accent and no logical force and hence does not count, serving here merely as a *formal* introduction to the sentence. This introductory *es*, however, is quite serviceable, as it *formally* distinguishes this emphatic form of the declarative sentence from the interrogative form. In popular language this *es* is often dropped; see 251. II. B. b.

B. Particulars of the Word-order:

a. If some adverbial element introduces the sentence, the subject usually, as in the preceding examples, follows the verb immediately, or is separated from it by unimportant words, but also, as in the following sentences, the subject may stand near the end of the sentence, especially when it contains the new and hence important element in the sentence, and is therefore to be emphasized: Bei den Griechen und Römern trat sehr früh an die Stelle des Gaaes als die Grundlage der politischen Einheit der Mauerring. Cäsar war Monarch; aber nie hat ihn der Tyrannenschwindel erfaßt (Mommsen's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. xi).

b. If it is desired to emphasize the *subject* or a *verb in a simple tense* we most commonly employ the inverted order, introducing the sentence with *es*. This important construction is explained in

251. II. B. a. bb, cc. From another standpoint this word-order may be regarded as the *normal* order, as the grammatical subject *es* stands in the first place. From still another point of view it is the *question* order, as explained in A. c, above, and also in 284. I. 1. a, 2nd paragraph, toward end.

c. It is a peculiarity of German that after a subordinate clause, especially one of cause (reason, condition, concession), the following principal proposition is often introduced by *so*, which repeats for especial emphasis the substance of the preceding clause: Wenn der Mensch keinen Genuß mehr in der Arbeit findet und bloß arbeitet um so schnell wie möglich zum Genuß zu gelangen, so ist es nur ein Zufall, wenn er kein Verbrecher wird. This use of *so* is, as in the preceding example, more common after long subordinate clauses, but must also be used sometimes in shorter sentences where the principal proposition and the subordinate clause have the same word-order, as it is here necessary to distinguish the principal proposition from the subordinate clause: Kann ich, so komme ich. Here the relation of the propositions would not be clear without the use of *so*, as both propositions have the same order. In poetry, however, the *so* is often even here dispensed with: Ehrt den König seine Würde, | ehret uns der Hände Fleiß (Schiller).

d. If any adverb or adverbial element, or a predicate noun or adjective, belongs to two co-ordinate sentences connected by *und* or *oder*, it usually causes inversion only in the first proposition, the second standing in normal order: Dann ziehen sich Bruder und Schwester zurück, und Conje eilt die Treppe hinauf. Schön ist sie nicht und sie wird es nie werden. In case the subjects of the different propositions refer to the same person, the subject is quite commonly suppressed in the second proposition. For examples see 251. II. A. e. Sometimes, however, the force of the word introducing the first proposition is felt, and inversion in the next proposition results: Hier hing die silberne Gedächtnisampel und erhob sich ebenfalls eine vergitterte Bühne (Heine, Hamburger Ausgabe, 4, 5). Schön war sie (die Stadt Kiel) niemals, ist sie auch nicht geworden und wird sie nie werden (Jensen).

In case an object is common to several propositions it is usually expressed in the first, and repeated in the form of a pronoun in the second, which has normal word-order: Das weiß ich und die ganze Stadt weiß es. Sometimes, however, the object is expressed but once, namely, in the first proposition, in which case the second must have inverted order, as the force of the object introducing the first proposition is felt: Verpflichtungen hat jeder Gastgeber gegen seine Gäste und daß ich die meinigen kenne, weiß ich und weiß die Welt (Raabe's *Der Dräumling*, xxvi).

e. If a sentence is introduced by certain co-ordinate conjunctions, the order remains normal, while on the other hand it becomes inverted if introduced by others. This matter is discussed in articles 233-237.

f. The following words or classes of words may introduce a sentence without causing inversion: (1) Exclamations do not

usually influence the word-order, as they are felt as standing outside of the structure of the sentence: Na, das wird was Schönes geben! Plague on it, that will make a pretty mess! (2) The affirmative adverb ja and negative nein: Nein! ich geh' nicht in die Stadt. (3) The adverbs nun in the one meaning *well*, *certainly*, and a number of concessive adverbs, adverbial conjunctions (for which see 235. A. c, and 236), short adverbial clauses, and also independent sentences with the force of adverbs, do not always cause inversion, as they are felt as modifying the whole sentence rather than the verb: allerdings it must be admitted, freilich to be sure, zwar it is true, in der That indeed, wie ich zugeben muß as I must confess, ich gestehe es I acknowledge it, &c. Exs.: Nun, ich werde zum Vater kommen (Benedix's *Doktor Treuwald*, I, 4). Gewiß, man muß auch schweigen können (Fontane's *Effi*, ix). Allerdings, ich habe es nicht selbst gesehen, aber ich glaube es. These adverbs and adverbial expressions, with the exception of the short independent concessive sentences, may also cause inversion, as they are also often felt as modifiers of the predicate: Allerdings habe ich es nicht selbst gesehen, aber ich glaube es. After the adverbs which are followed by normal order, the voice pauses somewhat, while after those which are followed by inverted order there is no such distinct pause, as the adverb is felt as belonging closely to the following verb. (4) A number of adverbs as nur only, vielleicht perhaps, besonders especially, dagegen, hingegen on the contrary, selbst even, schon even, &c., modify, not the predicate, but only the subject, or some part of it, and hence can stand before (and also after) the subject without causing inversion: Vielleicht der zuverlässigste Meister der steigenden Kultur ist das Gefühl der Zusammengehörigkeit der Nation (Mommsen's *Römische Geschichte*, V, chap. vii). Sometimes inversion takes place after such words, but then with a different meaning, as inversion is a sign that the adverb modifies the verb and not the subject: Wenigstens mein Bruder behauptet es *My brother AT LEAST* (I do not know whether anybody else does) *asserts it*, but Wenigstens behauptet es mein Bruder *My brother asserts it AT LEAST* (I do not know whether his statement is true). (5) After a conditional or concessive clause the following principal proposition sometimes for especial emphasis remains in normal order, especially after a concessive clause beginning with a relative: Gerhard merkte nicht, wie arg er seine Frau vernachlässigte; hätte er's gemerkt, er würde es nicht gemacht haben (Riel's *Der stumme Ratsherr*, I). Was er Ihnen auch immer verspricht, Sie dürfen ihn nicht trauen.

Question Order.

287. A. In this order the personal part of the verb stands in the first place, the subject usually stands in the second place, always if it is a personal pronoun, and the other parts are arranged in general as in normal order: Muß ich mich rechts oder links wenden? If the subject is a noun or a pronoun other than a personal pronoun it can for emphasis be placed toward the end

of the sentence: Kann mich das ein Mädchen fragen? Can a girl ask me such a question as that? Wundert dich das? As in these sentences, the subject is quite commonly separated from the verb by unaccented pronouns, providing it is itself not an unaccented personal pronoun, in which case it must immediately follow the verb: Wundert es dich? However, if the pronominal objects are to be made emphatic, they should follow the subject: Was geht Else dich an? If an infinitive is to be made emphatic it cannot, of course, in normal or question order stand in the first place. If it depends upon a participle it can be emphasized by being placed after the participle: Habt ihr von eurem Tafe her je einen Felsen gesehen sich neigen? (Sudermann's *Johannis*, 2, 1).

B. This order is found: (1) In all independent interrogative sentences which are not introduced by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb: Wollen Sie wohl dies für mich tun? Here there is a marked rising of the voice toward the end of the sentence as in English, but in the following uses the voice falls toward the end of the sentence, except, however, in the cases mentioned in (2) and (4). In the conditional and concessive clauses there mentioned the voice rises slightly toward the end of the clause, as the clauses were in fact originally questions; see 237. 1. A. b. Note 2. (2) In conditional clauses not introduced by a conjunction. For examples see 237. 1. A. b. (3) In clauses introduced by *als* as *if*. See 237. 1. A. c. (4) In concessive clauses not introduced by a conjunction: Ist es gleich Nacht, so leuchtet unser Nacht. See 280. b. (1) and (3). (5) In independent hortatory and optative sentences. See 168. I. 1. A, B. a, and 169. I. A. (6) In imperative sentences: Lassen Sie diese Schlüssel herumgehen. (7) The question-order is often used to make a statement in a stronger, more lively manner, especially when accompanied by the adverb *doch* (for historical explanation see 251. II. B. b: Hab' ich den Markt und die Straßen doch nie so einsam gesehen! | Ist doch die Stadt wie geföhrt! (Goethe's *H. und D.*, I. 1-2). Ist das schön! How beautiful that is! Weiß ich doch, woran ich bin! I know what I am about! In Wildenbruch's *Die Quitzows* we find, p. 16, the following dialogue illustrating this common construction in the popular language of Berlin: Perwenitz: Das is nicht wahr, das is der Quitzow (name) nich! Stroband: Is er doch! But he is though! Perwenitz: Is er nich! I tell you he isn't. But also quite common in colloquial language generally: Petriuchen: Ist wieder mal gar nicht recht wohl, die gnädige Frau. Minna: Sieht man ihr ja an (Wildenbruch's *Der unsterbliche Felix*, 1, 1). Adieu, mein kleines Fräulein. (Er sieht ihr nach, dann steht er auf, geht im Zimmer hin und her.) Könnte das nun ein allerliebster Hausfrauchen werden (ib., 1, 2). Hanoldt: Hat er es gelesen? Lieberitz: Weiß ich nicht, kommt auch nicht darauf an (ib., 1, 5). Hanoldt: Das erkläre mir. Lieberitz: Will ich (ib., 1, 5). Erna: Das hat er gesagt? Lieberitz: Hat er gesagt (ib., 1, 5). Herrgott, war euer Fest heute nett! Hab' ich mich amüßert! (Hartleben's *Rosenmontag*, p. 90). Wenno sollte natürlich den Mund halten — kann er aber nicht (ib., p. 179). Ist die listig! I tell you she is sly! For other examples see 251. II. B. b. Compare older English: Fab.: Is't so

saucy? Sir And.: Ay, *is't*, I warrant him: do but read (Shakespeare's *Twelfth Night*, 3, 4). Sometimes this construction is found in connection with *ja* or *aber*: Wußten wir es ja alle! Why, we all knew that! Hat das aber Mühe gekostet. I tell you that cost a good deal of trouble. Minna's reply, given above, contains *ja*. Such sentences often have the force of a subordinate clause containing the self-evident reason for the preceding statement: Er kann es nicht streiten, hatten es doch alle gesehen. (8) In poetry and the language of the common people the question order is frequently found in narrative style: Sah ein Knab' ein Röslein steh'n, | Röslein auf der Heiden, | war so jung und morgenschön, | lief er schnell, es nah zu sehn, | sah's mit vielen Freuden (Goethe). See 251. II. B. b. (9) After the conjunction *und* to emphasize the verb or the subject. See 233. A. d. The *question* order after *und* is sometimes apparently used where in fact the order is the *inverted*, as an adverb or an object which has been previously employed is understood; see 286. B. d.

Transposed Order.

288. A. In this order the clause is introduced by a subordinate conjunction, or a relative or interrogative pronoun or adverb, and ends with the personal part of the verb, the remaining elements having about the same arrangement as in normal and inverted order: Seine Freunde fürchteten, daß es ihm zu schwer werden würde. As in the preceding sentence, the subject usually stands at the head of the clause, always if it is a personal, relative, or interrogative pronoun, but if it is a noun or pronoun other than those just mentioned it may, as in the inverted order, be preceded by adverbial elements or a pronominal object, but not by the other elements which can introduce the proposition in the inverted order, as described in 286. A. b, above: Wie heutzutage in unserer und durch unsere Weltliteratur die Gegensätze der civilisirten Nationen aufgehoben sind, so hat die griechische Dichtkunst das dürftige und egoistische Stammgefühl zum hellenischen Volksbewußtsein und dieses zum Humanismus umgewandelt (Mommsen's *Römische Geschichte*, I, chap. xv). Es ist ein Vorurteil, daß in der allgemeinen Verbreitung der elementaren Kenntnisse das Altertum hinter unserer Zeit wesentlich zurückgestanden habe (ib., III, chap. xiv). Wie der Künstler alles malen kann, nur nicht die vollendete Schönheit, so kann auch der Geschichtsschreiber, wo ihm alle tausend Jahre einmal das Vollkommene begegnet, nur darüber schweigen (ib., V, chap. xi). The predicate noun, adjective, infinitive, or perfect participle cannot, as in the inverted order for special emphasis, be placed at the beginning of the clause, nor can they take the emphatic position at the end, for the subordinate clause, according to 284. I. 3. a, is usually presented dispassionately as a compact unit, and hence does not show in the word-order the influence of logical considerations or strong emotion. The infinitive and participle stand next to the end before the personal part of the verb, the predicate adjective or noun stand before the personal part of the verb in case of a simple tense, and before the different parts of the verb in case of a compound tense.

Although the logical importance of the predicate adjective, noun, infinitive, and participle does not find expression in the word-order, they are distinguished by strong stress as in English: *Ich setze mich nicht in den Wagen, weil ich **gehen** will.*

a. Note especially that a clause or infinitive phrase which is dependent upon another dependent clause must follow the pronominal subject of the governing dependent clause, and not precede it as in English: *Er behauptete, daß er, anstatt die Versammlung aufzulösen, einen Antrag machen wolle* He stated that instead of dissolving the assembly he would make a proposal. *Wenn er, nachdem man seine Aussage bezweifelte, wieder fragen sollte* usq. If, upon their doubting his statement, he asked again, &c.

b. The objective genitive of a relative pronoun must introduce the subordinate clause; see 255. II. 1. D. *b.*

B. This order is used:

a. In subordinate clauses. There are, however, exceptions, which are stated in 237. I. A, B, C, D.

b. In lively questions and exclamations, which are usually introduced by a subordinate conjunction or an interrogative pronoun or adverb: *Wo er wohl jetzt ist?* I do wonder where he is. *Mutter, ob's jedem Mädchen so ist, daß eine Braut werden soll, wie mir?* *Wer ihm das wohl gesagt haben mag!* Who in the world could have told him that?

c. In poetry frequently also in principal propositions, for sake of rhyme or meter, as a survival of a once more general freedom in placing words: *Der alte Schmied den Bart sich streicht: | „Das Schwert ist nicht zu schwer noch leicht“ (Uhland).*

d. In early N.H.G., when *je* and *danach* introduce both the principal proposition and the subordinate clause, the principal proposition sometimes has transposed order for the sake of a parallelism between the two propositions, and this older usage survives in poetry and proverbs: *Je mehr er aber verbot, je mehr sie es ausbreiteten* (Mark vii. 36). *Je mehr sie hat, je mehr sie will; nie schweigen ihre Wünsche still* (proverb). *Danach einer tut, danach es ihm geht* (prov.). *Je — je* is now largely replaced by *je* (with transposed order) — *desto* or *um so* (with inverted order): *Je mehr der Vorrat schmolz, desto (or um so) schrecklicher wuchs der Hunger.* Transposed order in both propositions for the sake of the parallelism is now quite rare: *Desto zahlreicher so eine Grablegung gehandhabt wird, je umfanglicher die Offertorien fließen* (Hauptmann's *Die Weber*, 3, p. 50).

C. For the position of an auxiliary which is common to two or more subordinate clauses see 237. I. E.

GENERAL INDEX

The figures used in this index refer to pages, those employed in the body of the Grammar, however, refer to articles. The abbreviations here used are: pron. for pronunciation; orthog. for orthography; decl. for declension; compar. for comparison; grad. for gradation, i.e. the principal parts of a strong or irregular verb; syn. for syntax, i.e. the influence upon the syntactical structure of the sentence, government of case, &c.

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CORRECTIONS.

P. 104. Article 2. *a* puts too much emphasis upon the non-inflection of the title. The following modifying statement will, perhaps, place the matter in a truer light. The non-inflection of the title in all these cases is the survival of older usage. The title and name were formerly felt as a compound name, and hence the inflectional ending was added only to the second element. The example from Raabe's *Pechlin* is a survival of this older usage. Modern usage drops the genitive *s* when the article precedes, and such forms result as the example from Scheffel's *Trompeter*. At present the title is often felt as an independent word, and literary usage in general inclines to inflect it, as in *die Menschenliebe des Kaisers Josef*. Older usage manifests itself most frequently in colloquial language in set expressions where title and name have become so thoroughly fused that separation by inflection of the first element is unnatural: *der Tod des Doctors Martin Luther*.

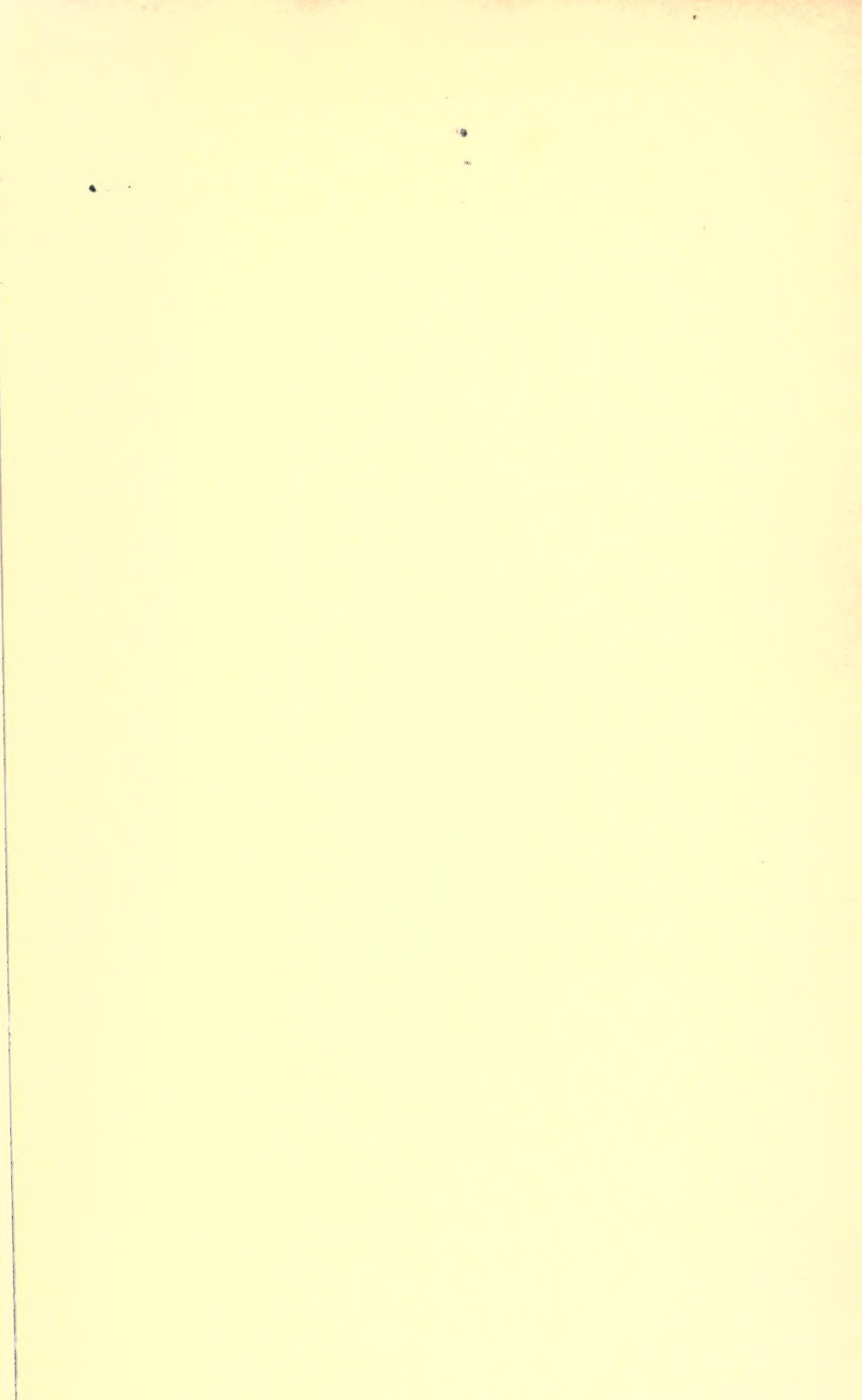
P. 104. In article *b*, lines 3-4, change 'non-inflection' to 'inflection.'

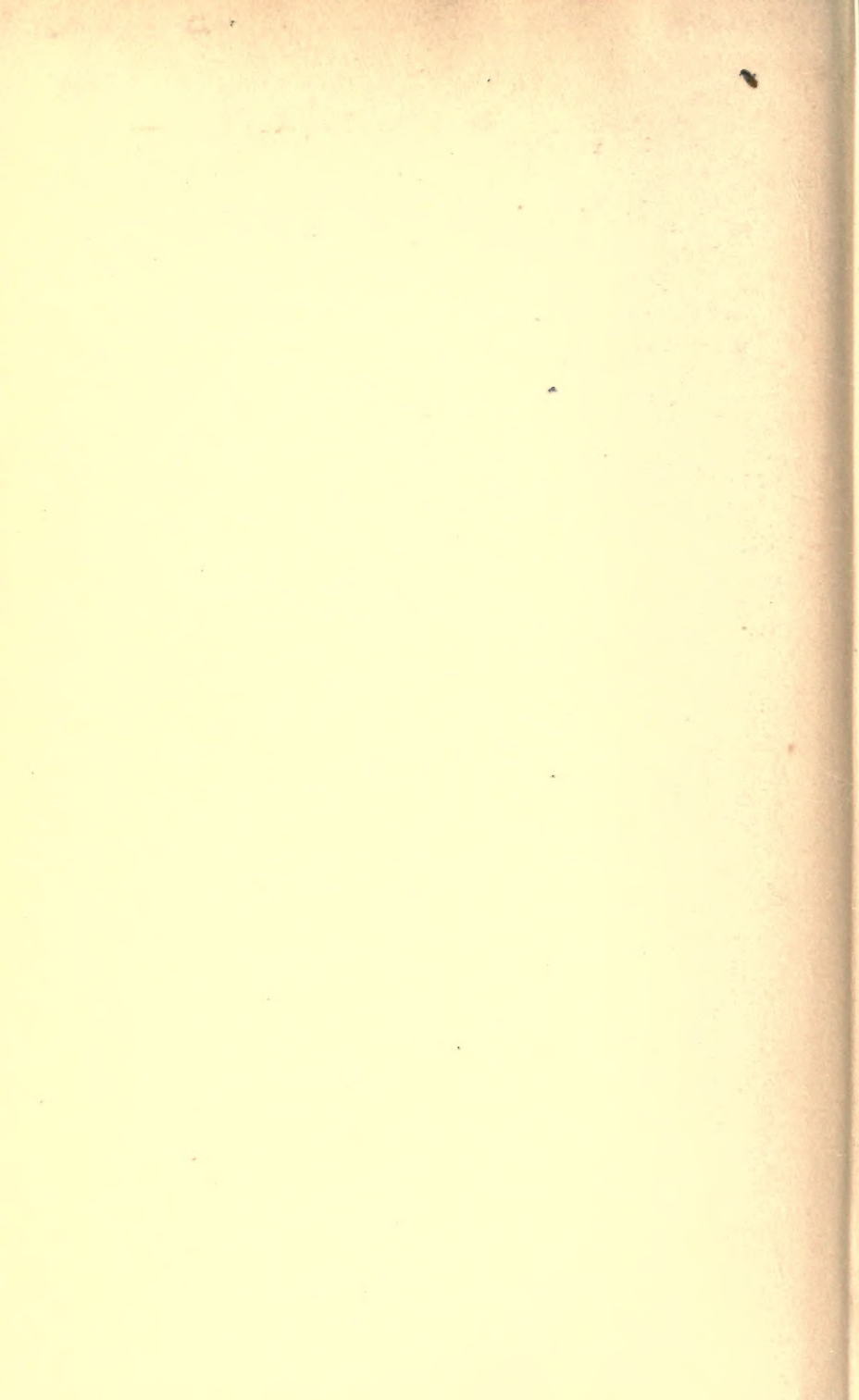
P. 285. In article *a* transfer the last German example to B. *b* on the next page.

P. 495. Insert in line 15 from below immediately before the words 'Kurt (unter erneuten Küssen)' the following statement: Except in case of personal pronouns this same order is sometimes employed to emphasize the subject, which thus becomes emphatic, not only by strong stress, but also by its unusual position:









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